Volunteering And Lifelong Learning: An Exploration Of Adult Motivation To Volunteer In Work With Young People In England.

Thesis

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Volunteering and Lifelong Learning: An exploration of adult motivation to volunteer in work with young people in England

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Abstract

This research explores what motivates adults to volunteer in work with young people in England. An exploratory research methodology was adopted (Sarantakos, 2013), underpinned by a socio-cultural perspective (Lave and Wenger, 1991) to investigate adults' motivation to volunteer and the learning experiences that they have through participating in volunteering activities (Duguid, Mundel and Schugurensky, 2013). Two research instruments were utilised in the study, the Volunteer Functions Inventory (Clary *et al.*, 1998), which was administered online, and focus groups delivered utilising a metaplanning approach (Matheson and Matheson, 2009).

This research builds on the literature regarding volunteering and volunteer motivation to critically challenge the 'panacea' theory (Baines and Hardill, 2008) and it identifies the factors which affect the extent to which a volunteering opportunity can meet the needs of volunteers and their client group. Furthermore, this research explores volunteer motivation, identifying that this can change over a volunteer's life. This ongoing motivation is effected by the personal, cultural and structural (Thompson, 2012) context in which volunteering takes place.

Since the 1990s the promotion of volunteering has been a focus of Governmental policy (Rochester, Howlett and Ellis Paine, 2010; Dean, 2016). This research identifies that a good infrastructure for people to volunteer in is needed, enabling volunteers to participate in communities of practice and learn from professionals (Wenger, 1998). This includes ensuring that not only are there a range of opportunities in any geographical area but also across the spectrum of work with young people.

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Glossary

ASDAN - Award Scheme Development and Accreditation Network

BME – Black and Minority Ethnic

DCMS - Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport

DofE – Duke of Edinburgh's Scheme

DWP – The Department of Work and Pensions

HE – Higher Education

JNC – Joint Negotiating Committee

LA – Local Authority

LAYS – Local Authority Youth Services

NCS – National Citizenship Service

NCVO – National Council for Voluntary Organisations

NCVYS – National Council for Voluntary Youth Services

NYA – National Youth Agency

RAMPS – Regional Accreditation and Monitoring Panels

REYS – Resourcing Excellent Youth Services

SES – Socio-Economic Status

UK – United Kingdom

VCS – Voluntary and Community Sector

VFI – Volunteer Functions Inventory

YP – Young People

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1. Introduction

This chapter will introduce my research as well as the field of practice and the context of this research, situating it within the relevant social and national policy concerns. I will discuss my motivations for undertaking this research and identify the gap in knowledge that my research aims to address. I will also introduce my research aims and objectives, present my research questions, and briefly introduce the theoretical frameworks which underpin my thesis and then outline the structure of my thesis.

1.1 The field of practice and research context

The field of work with young people, including youth work, uniformed organisations and any other form of informal education with young people, is a broad one which is traditionally found in the voluntary or third (VCS) and statutory sectors but increasingly can be found in the private sector (Unison, 2014). The work undertaken with young people is wide-ranging and includes but is not limited to:

- Targeted projects which work with specific groups or individuals;
- Open access projects which are accessible to all;
- Outreach work aimed at drawing young people in to a youth or community centre;
- Centre-based work which can include nightly or weekly projects such as youth clubs, uniformed organisations and Duke of Edinburgh Schemes (DofE);
- Detached or street-based work where workers will engage with young people in the community;
- Mobile provision, such as a converted double-decker bus, which travels to different areas (Ingram and Harris, 2001).

Working with young people online has also become a feature of the work in recent years (Melvin, 2013).

The provision may be offered within a geographical location i.e. a village youth club; focused upon a particular interest such as an art club or working with young people who share an identity characteristic such as young carers or LGBTQIA young people. It can be found not only as discrete practices specifically for young people but also as projects delivered with a broader community emphasis. For the purposes of this research work with young people is informal and non-formal work focused around young people aged predominantly 11 – 19 years.

In England, the multiplicity of organisations and practices in the field of work with young people, and youth work specifically, has contributed to a lack of coherent characterisation of the work undertaken with young people and no united view on how to meet the needs of this diverse group (Wylie, 2015). Such diversity, together with the quarrelsome relationship between voluntary and statutory sector providers (Davies, 1999), has contributed to both a lack of clarity and a lack of strong identity for this field of practice.

This incoherence has been acerbated by the fact that successive Governments' interest in work with young people and specifically youth work has been sporadic (Wylie, 2013). The Albemarle Review and subsequent Report in the 1960s aimed to evaluate the role of the Youth Service of England and Wales in supporting young people to be engaged in their communities. This review was undertaken in the context of changing social and industrial circumstances but was also a driver to ensure good value for money from youth services (Albermarle, 1960).

Whilst there was an attempt directly after the publication of the Albermarle Report to resource a coherent youth service which had a clear set of aims and objectives (Davies, 1999) as policy priorities changed it was not until the New Labour Government's *Resourcing Excellent Youth Services* (REYS) (Department for Education and Skills, 2002) that work with young people in England received the same level of interest. In the intervening period, the vision of a coherent youth service had become, in practice, a complex network of organisations and groups found across the voluntary and community sector, and in Local Authorities (Department for Education and Skills, 2002). REYS was followed by the 'Aiming High' strategy in 2007 (Department for Children Schools and Families, 2007). Whilst Youth Work and work with young people more generally was the focus of Government funding and policy making in the period directly after the Albermarle report (1960) and during the New Labour Government (1997-2010), it is clear that neither episode can be seen to be a golden age of youth work (Wylie, 2015).

In 2011, the Coalition Government launched *Positive for Youth* (H M Government, 2011) with much fanfare but no follow-up. Since then there has been an absence of youth policy in England other than a move towards a focus on social action (The National Youth Agency, 2014) with the then Government's flagship youth policy, the National Citizens Service (NCS), being introduced in 2011 (House of Commons Education Committee, 2011).

Since 2010, there have been severe cuts to Local Authority budgets in England and the whole range of services that were previously available to young people, including education, mental health support and youth services, have been disproportionally affected (Unison, 2014, 2016; The National Youth Agency, 2017). The ability of the voluntary sector to fill these gaps or to work collaboratively with local authorities is mixed across the country (The National Youth Agency, 2014).

In 2016, The Government launched a review into full-time social action by young people (Department for Culture Media and Sport, 2016) but this should not be explored without recognising other practices and projects in the field of work with young people; not all work with young people is focused exclusively on social action and nor should it be. The importance of adult volunteers to support this work does not feature within this review and neither does it overtly feature in the Government's *Civil society strategy* (The Cabinet Office, 2018a) beyond enabling a lifelong contribution to civil society, although some case studies do mention adult volunteers. Whilst there have been the inevitable calls for reinvestment in youth services in response to increased youth knife crime (House Affairs Committee, 2019), these problems are not only somewhat London-centric, but with the predominant political focus being Britain's exit from the European Union, an immediate response to these issues is unlikely.

1.2 Motivations for this research and 'gap' in our understanding and knowledge

My motivations for undertaking this research are underpinned by a lifetime of volunteering mainly, but not solely, in some form of work with young people. However, the focus of this thesis crystallised during 2011 and 2012. Firstly, in May 2011 there was a House of Commons Education Committee meeting to investigate services for young people in which the witnesses who were called to give evidence, which included senior postholders within a range of voluntary and statutory organisations, were unable to articulate the positive impact of work with young people and focused on the need to do targeted work with young people 'at risk' (House of Commons Education Committee, 2011). This is not surprising given the government approach to youth work and work with young people in England at that time. However, as I was writing teaching resources for third year degree students during this period, I was increasingly disappointed by the lack of movement in the fifteen years in which I had been involved in work with young people, and that the field was no more able to articulate its impact in spite of the time and energy that had been committed to do so during that time.

Initially, therefore, I had considered researching the impact of work with young people to address this gap. However, after reflecting upon this for some time, it felt too big an expectation for a doctoral student to address an issue that a whole field of practitioners had failed to solve.

In June 2012, I wrote and taught a Level 2 certificate in Working with Young People which was attended by six adults, two men and four women, all of whom were volunteering in a village youth club. They were all of different ages with different educational, professional and personal backgrounds and from the moment I asked them to introduce themselves and tell everyone their reasons for attending the training, it was clear to me that each of those volunteers had different motivations for being there and got different things from their volunteering. Clearly, to meet all their needs, and those of the young people accessing their provision, would take planning and careful thought but what became clear was that if this were achievable then to evaluate work with young people just on the outcomes for young people was failing to recognise and value the impact and outcomes for the adults who volunteer. This also potentially fails to capitalise on the outcomes and benefits available to our volunteer workforce, 11.9 million of whom formally volunteered at least once a month in 2016/17 (The National Council for Voluntary Organisations, 2018c).

1.3 The aims, objectives, and research question of this thesis

My thoughts often return to the group of volunteers who attended the training in 2012. They all knew each other and volunteered in the same project in a semi-rural village. The group dynamic was interesting in that the men clearly took senior roles within the group. One was the Chair of the Board of Trustees, a position which by default gave him seniority to the others who volunteered with the young people. However, the other male had only been volunteering with the group for three weeks and had not volunteered prior to this, so the source of his seniority was debateable. Three of the women had been volunteering for three to five years in the project with one having a professional qualification in Early Years Education and a job as a Children's Centre Manager.

This emphasised another difference across the group: their previous educational achievement. This created an interesting dynamic within the group when discussing the practice of working with young people. Those who had the experience to draw upon were confident in challenging others based upon experience but if the topic being discussed was outside their direct experience, they were much less likely to contribute to the debates.

What was also noticeable was that the two men relied on other aspects of their identity to reinforce their positions. The Chair of the Board of Trustees started every answer by stating "in my role as Chair …". This reminded everyone in the group of his position, but it also served to counterbalance his relative lack of experience in working with young people. The other male compensated for his lack of experience by constantly referring to his time in the uniformed services, even to the point of arguing that police engagement with groups of young people had the same underpinning values as Youth Work.

This small but diverse group of volunteers were demonstrating that their voluntary work with this particular project was motivated by personal drivers and met their individual needs. Critically reflecting on this group for some time led to me wanting to explore the experiences of different groups who volunteer in work with young people. In doing so I hoped to evidence that work with young people is not just valuable to the young people themselves, but also to the adults who facilitate it. Hence, my initial thesis title was: *An Exploration of the Impact of Volunteering in Youth Work on Developing Social Capital in Adults from Low Social Economic Status (SES) Backgrounds*.

However, as I began to explore the literature regarding volunteering in work with young people, it became clear that there was a lack of published research regarding volunteering in work with young people. What is written tends to be focused upon volunteer management and this is often from a broader community development perspective (Tyler, Hoggarth and Merton, 2009; Stanton, 2015). Whilst there is focus on volunteer retention (Farmer and Fedor, 1999; Warburton, Smith-Merry and Michaels, 2013; Stukas *et al.*, 2014) it is often from the perspective of the organisation (Bales, 1996) rather than from the perspective that the longer adults volunteer the more likely they are to benefit from it. Therefore, during the process of writing my literature review, it became clear that the focus of my research needed to change and consequently the aim of this research is to explore three main questions:

1. What motivates adults to volunteer to work with young people in England?
2. What are the benefits to the volunteer from participating in work with young people in England? What are the ways in which people learn and develop different types of capital from their volunteering and is this different depending upon an individuals' identity characteristics?
3. What factors motivate and demotivate adults from continuing to volunteer in working with young people in England and which of the demotivating factors might we be able to mitigate against?

1.4 Theoretical frameworks

This research adopts a critical theory paradigm (Creswell, 2007). In both the literature review and the discussion chapter the social policy related to volunteering will be examined and questioned. The role of policy in encouraging and supporting, or indeed hindering the volunteering process will be critically discussed. Changes in Government policy on youth will be discussed in order to investigate how they may have impacted upon opportunities for adults to volunteer with young people. The implications of the then Government's commitment to youth social action within the NCS, arguably at the expense of year round Local Authority (LA) delivered programmes (Croix, 2017), on the creation and promotion of adult volunteering will be explored. The reduction in LA provision will be considered to evaluate whether it has created the space or need for individuals or communities to 'act' to plug the gap, and in doing so increase opportunities to volunteer.

The benefits to the volunteers generally and the ways in which volunteering fosters adults lifelong learning specifically is explored through the lens of constructivism (Thomas, 2017). The extent to which learning is an explicit act for volunteers and the organisations in which they work is scrutinised in order to examine the nature of the learning which takes place. Notions of informal or social education, such as developing confidence and social skills are examined as well as the impact volunteering may have on opening up opportunities to access more formal learning.

My research explores the ways in which volunteering develops capitals within the paradox that individuals need high levels of social capital to successfully volunteer (Wilson and Musick, 1998). It considers the value of volunteering to individuals from different backgrounds, and with different forms of capital as well as the barriers faced by volunteers from different groups. Through my own experiences I have seen how volunteering with young people can be an entry point into paid work, and can support access to both further and higher education for those from low Socio-Economic Status (SES) backgrounds with low social capital.

Finally, this research seeks to illuminate the varied experiences of volunteers at different life stages and from different social and cultural backgrounds through the lens of 'intersectionality' (Hill Collins and Bilge, 2016). That is 'a way of understanding and (analysing) the complexity in the world, in people, and in human experiences' (Hill Collins and Bilge, 2016, p.2) not just through a single facet of an individual's identity, such as race, sex or class, rather understanding that individuals have multiple facets to their identity which may offset each other or compound the subjugation of individuals who may face multiple oppressions (Thompson, 2012).

1.5 The research process

My research adopted a mixed-methods approach (Burgess et al., 2006). Informed by the literature and the interpretivist epistemology of this research, an online survey, the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) (Clary *et al.*, 1998) was administered and four focus groups were facilitated utilising a meta-planning approach (Matheson and Matheson, 2009). The survey and focus groups were delivered concurrently as opposed to sequentially (Turnbull and Lathlean, 2015).

The online-survey data was analysed using SPSS in relation to the six volunteer functions identified by Clary *et al* (1998). The open comments were examined utilising a theoretical thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The focus group participants thematically analysed their own answers as part of the meta-planning activity (Matheson and Matheson, 2009). The focus group discussions were also recorded with the consent of the participants. These recordings were transcribed and explored utilising a theoretical thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The comments and group outputs were analysed in relation to the VFI themes and against the literature discussed in Chapter 2.

The integration of the findings from each part of the research process was conducted as a stage of interpretation after the results were concluded in order to compare them to identify areas of convergence, divergence and discrepancy (Turnbull and Lathlean, 2015) across the results.

1.6 Thesis Structure

This EdD Thesis has six chapters. Chapter 2, the literature review, describes the literature searching strategy adopted, presents current data on volunteering in England, and explores the current literature regarding volunteering, including volunteer motivations and the benefits of volunteering to the volunteer and society. This includes volunteering as learning and the role of work with young people in contributing to a culture of volunteering (Thompson, 2012).

In Chapter 3, the methodology chapter, the research methodology adopted is critically examined including the methods, the design, and the ethical implications of this research. In Chapter 4, the demographics chapter, I present the demographic profiles of the individuals who participated in this research and discuss the survey participants' responses to the VFI survey in relation to their identity characteristics. Chapter 5 discusses the research findings and critically analyses the data collected via the online survey and the focus groups with the literature already discussed in Chapter 2.

The final chapter in this thesis, Chapter 6 discusses the implications of this research for practice in work with young people. The limitations of my research are discussed, tentative conclusions are drawn, recommendations are made for future research and how this work makes an original contribution to the field of education is considered with regard to both practice and theory.

1.7 Conclusion

This chapter has introduced the field of practice and the context of this research, situating it within the relevant social and national policy concerns. The motivation for undertaking this research has been discussed and the gap in knowledge that this research aims to address has been identified. The aims and objectives of this research has been introduced, and the research questions have been presented. The theoretical frameworks which underpin this thesis have been briefly introduced as has the structure of this thesis.

The following chapter will discuss the literature searching strategy, present current data on volunteering in England, and critically discuss the current literature regarding volunteering, including volunteer motivations. It will critically discuss literature concerning the benefits of volunteering to the volunteer and society, including the learning which happens through volunteering and the role of work with young people in contributing to a culture of volunteering (Thompson, 2012).

2. Literature Review

This research explores what motivates adults to initially volunteer in work with young people in England and then to maintain their volunteering over a period of time. This literature review will explain the literature searching strategy I adopted, before exploring the context of work with young people and then considering current data on volunteering in England. This chapter will examine the literature regarding volunteering, including volunteers' motivations and volunteering as learning before critically discussing the contribution of volunteering to society in England including the role of work with young people and Government policy in contributing to a culture of volunteering (Thompson, 2012).

2.1 Literature Search Strategy

The literature relating to this domain was searched in two ways. Firstly, a series of search terms were identified including relevant key words such as 'volunteer', 'motivation', 'learning' and 'youth work'. These terms were then refined using Boolean Logic (Ridley 2012) in order to narrow the results field and increase the likelihood of relevant sources being located.

These revised searches were then used to explore online library catalogues, journal databases and the internet more broadly through Google Scholar. Alerts were then set up to report new articles relating to these terms as they became available.

Secondly, through the process of critically reading the articles identified through the process outlined previously, 'reference harvesting' (Thyer, 2010) or 'snowballing' (Ridley, 2012) techniques were adopted. Finally, both approaches discussed were utilised to explore relevant grey literature including Government statistics on volunteering, and volunteering and practice websites such as The National Council for Voluntary Organisations (NCVO) and The Cabinet Office pages on gov.uk.

2.2 Work with young people and volunteering

Work with young people has a long association with volunteering in England (Davies, 1999; Smith, 2013). This field of practice has foundations in the Voluntary and Community Sector (VCS), specifically in religious, charitable and educative activities in the late 1700s and early 1800s (Jeffs, 2001). Since their earliest inceptions, organisations operating in this field have relied completely or substantially on adult volunteers to deliver their services (Davies, 1999). This remains an intrinsic part of many such organisations' ethos, an example of this being The Scout Association (The Scout Association, 2014). More recently, both statutory and voluntary youth provision has notably relied on volunteers in order to provide its services (Davies, 2013; Unison, 2016; UK Youth, 2018). Whether these organisations are truly committed to involving adult volunteers or whether it is out of necessity, it is clear that volunteers are key to the sustainability of this work (Wylie, 2015).

Work with young people includes a wide-ranging set of practices and can take place in almost any place and space (Curran and Golding, 2013). The work is facilitated by practitioners and professionals from a range of different practice backgrounds both professional, such as youth workers, and volunteer, such as church youth leaders. The dynamic nature of the field dictates that you may also have a voluntary youth worker and a paid and professionally qualified church youth leader.

The research discussed in this thesis will refer to 'work with young people' rather than 'youth work'. This is because youth work is problematic terminology which, particularly for those who work with young people in the VCS, uniformed organisations and through particular disciplines such as the arts and sports, is often associated almost exclusively with the work undertaken by Local Authorities (LA). The LA Youth Services (LAYS) did not exist prior to the Albemarle Report (Rochester, Howlett and Ellis Paine, 2010). Even within LAYS, Youth Work can be seen to be the sole realm of qualified practitioners rather than the work undertaken by volunteer and sessional staff. Therefore, it is important to adopt the most inclusive of terms in order to include the greatest number of volunteers.

This research is concerned with work with young people that is underpinned, informed or aligned to the ethical principles of youth work:

- Treat young people with respect;
- Respect and promote young people's rights to make their own decisions and choices;
- Promote and ensure the welfare and safety of young people and,
- Contribute towards the promotion of social justice (National Youth Agency, 2004).

Therefore, it is concerned with work that is focused upon the young people themselves and their needs and wants. This work aims to support young people as they grow into adults to promote young people's voice in decision making at all levels and to encourage young people to take their place in society both now and as adults (National Youth Agency, 2004), in other words, to support young people to flourish (Jeffs and Smith, 2012; Wylie, 2015). Work with young people originated and remains fundamentally part of civic society and the Voluntary and Community Sector (VCS) (Jeffs and Smith, 2010).

Taking into consideration the historical and current role of volunteers in delivering work with young people, it is likely that the ongoing and future funding cuts (Unison, 2014, 2016; The National Youth Agency, 2017) will continue to entrench the reduction in opportunities to volunteer which have already been seen, particularly in disadvantaged areas (Wylie, 2015). Therefore, it is timely to consider the motivations of those who volunteer in this field in order to develop our understanding of the implications of funding and policy changes on volunteers and the organisations that support and rely on them. Furthermore, if organisations are to recruit and retain volunteers, it is vital that they understand what their particular volunteering experience can offer as well as the barriers to ongoing volunteering that adults face.

2.3 Volunteering

Like work with young people, volunteering in England has its roots in philanthropy and mutual aid (Baines and Hardill, 2008). Wilson defines '(v)olunteering (as) any activity in which time is given freely to benefit another person, group, or organization' (2000, p.215). Volunteering and volunteering opportunities can be categorised in a range of ways (Goic and Jeroncic, 2007; Bowen *et al.*, 2009), but for the purposes of this research volunteering will be sub-divided into two types, formal and informal volunteering. This subdivision seems particularly apt to work with young people given its underpinning philosophies.

Formal volunteering can be defined as giving unpaid service or support to a group, club or organisation (Low *et al.*, 2007). It sits in contrast to informal volunteering activity, which is defined as 'giving unpaid help as an individual to people' (Low *et al.*, 2007, p.13), though some authors extend their definition to distinguish the fact that informal volunteering does not include help and assistance given to relatives or household members (Lee and Brudney, 2012); others differentiate even further between relatives who are household members and those who are not (Wilson and Musick, 1997).

The ‘formal’ or ‘informal’ nature of the volunteering is characterised by the relationship or structure between the volunteer and the recipient/s of their volunteering. The former being through a formal relationship with an organisation or group, and the latter an informal relationship between the volunteer and recipient/s. An example of which might be a longstanding agreement to drive a neighbour to doctor’s appointments.

The Community Life Survey 2017-18 found more adults volunteered informally (53%) than formally (38%) at least once in the last year. This is a decline of seven percentage points on the rate of annual formal volunteering in 2013-14 compared to a decline of five percentage points on the rate of informal volunteering in the same year. Both saw an increase of one percentage point since 2016-17, which defied the general downward trend. Whilst those who volunteer informally are clearly an important section of the volunteering community, informal volunteering will not feature in this research as it focuses on volunteering within the practice of work with young people, which is delivered through organisations and is therefore ‘formal’ volunteering.

2.3.1 Who volunteers?

In England, The Government, via The Cabinet Office, have collected figures for volunteering through a range of surveys such as the Citizenship Survey 2001-2011, and more recently the Community Life Survey from 2012 onwards. Whilst these statistics are useful, direct comparison of the figures over time is difficult as the same data is not collected in the same way by these two surveys.

The Community Life Survey is an annual household study of adults aged 16 years and over, in England. It tracks trends across areas that are important to fostering social action and empowering communities. Participants are surveyed on the themes of: Identity and Social networks; Neighbourhood and Community; Civic Engagement; Volunteering and Charitable; Social Action and Wellbeing and loneliness. In 2018, it was administered by Kantar Public on behalf of the Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport (DCMS) (Cabinet Office, 2018). The 2017-18 survey was completed by 10,217 participants.

Between 1997 and 2007 the average number of hours spent volunteering by individuals decreased (Low et al., 2007). In the field of work with young people, and in public services generally, this decade was a period of comparatively high levels of Government spending, at least in comparison to those under the previous Conservative Government (Diamond, 2013). The decrease in levels of volunteering throughout this time has been cited as one of the drivers for the Coalition Government's *Big Society Agenda* (2010) and the *Localism Act* (2011) which will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

As can be seen from Table 2-1 below, there is a difference between the percentages of adults who volunteered on an annual basis, which is defined as having volunteered at least once in the last 12 months, compared to monthly, which is categorised as having volunteered at least once in the past 4 weeks (The Cabinet Office, 2015). The rate of people formally volunteering has slowly declined since the 2013/14 survey. Whilst fewer people volunteer on a monthly basis, these rates have reduced less than those volunteering annually.

Table 2-1: Rates of formal volunteering (The Department for Digital Culture Media & Sport, 2018)

Percentages	Formal Volunteering									
	At least once a month					At least once in the **last year**				
	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18
Total	27	25	21	22	22	45	40	37	37	38

This has particular implications for work with young people which tends to run projects on a weekly basis. Therefore, the rates of monthly volunteering are most relevant to the field. Whilst respondents were asked about their formal volunteering within the last four weeks, it is important to note that this could involve multiple episodes of volunteering during the period.

This does not mean that volunteers cannot make a positive contribution to an organisation by volunteering at annual events. However, most work with young people relies on developing positive relationships between adults and young people (Ingram and Harris, 2001) which takes time and cannot be forced (Spence and Devanney, 2013). What these figures do not show is why participants were volunteering annually versus on a monthly basis. The assumption is to attribute this to time restrictions on the part of the volunteer, but there may be other contributing factors such as a lack of volunteering opportunities available.

Social action has become synonymous with work with young people as it is a key feature in the Government's Flagship youth scheme, the NCS (2018) and so it would be inappropriate not to discuss it, albeit briefly, in this literature review. The Cabinet Office defines social action as being:

A. Trying to set up a new service or amenity to help local residents

B. Trying to stop the closure of a local service or amenity

C. Trying to stop something happening in my local area

D. Running local services on a voluntary basis (e.g. childcare, youth services, parks and community centres)

E. Organising a community event such as a street party

F. Another issue affecting my local area (The Cabinet Office, 2013, p.34)

As with formal volunteering, rates of social action are decreasing. In 2013-14, 19% of adults were involved in social action at least once. Rates were 16% in 2014-15, 2015-2016 and 2016-17 and 15% in 2017-18. This is a substantial decrease compared to the 23% of adults involved in social action in 2012-13 (The Cabinet Office, 2014a, 2015). In the period 2017-18 individuals' living in urban areas were less likely to participate in social action (13%) than those living in rural areas (22%) and those in the least deprived areas were more likely to have participated in social action in the last year (20%) than those in the most deprived areas (10%). The disparity between volunteering in different districts will be discussed further with regard to social policy later in this chapter. For the purposes of this research Wilson's position that 'much … social action (can be) rightly labelled volunteering' (2000, p.216) will be adopted and therefore social action will be included within a wider definition of volunteering in work with young people.

Table 2-2: Sex of formal volunteers (The Department for Digital Culture Media & Sport, 2018)

Percentages	Formal Volunteering									
	At least once a month					At least once in the **last year**				
	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18
Total	27	25	21	22	22	45	40	37	37	38
Male	27	25	21	22	21	44	38	34	35	35
Female	27	25	22	23	23	45	41	40	39	40

As can be seen from Table 2.2 there is very little difference between men and women's rate of formal volunteering on a monthly basis. However, women do participate in formal volunteering both monthly and annually more than men. Whilst 'psychological research has found that women score higher on most measures of the traits, motivations, and values that predict helping others' (Einolf, 2011, p.1092) it is clear from the above figures that this does not greatly affect the rates of formal volunteering on a monthly basis. Einolf also states that 'women are more likely to help family and friends' (2011, p.1092) which is reinforced by the Community Life Survey which found that more women than men volunteered informally in the last four weeks (24% of men and 29% of women). However, in their research Baines and Hardill (2008) found that rather than family being the focus of their help, lack of support or demands from family members on female volunteers affected the time that they had available to give.

The NCVO (2018a) explored data from the 2015/16 Community Life Survey and found that whilst the rate of volunteering formally might be broadly similar there were differences across the sexes with regard to the types of activity undertaken. This potentially has implications for the kinds of outcomes, benefits and learning opportunities that are possible for the volunteer as a result of their volunteering (Wilson and Musick, 1999; Lee et al., 2017).

Table 2-3: Age of volunteers 2014-15 (The Department for Digital Culture Media & Sport, 2018)

Percentages	Formal Volunteering									
	At least once a month					At least once in the **last year**				
	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18
Total	27	25	21	22	22	45	40	37	37	38
16 to 24	30	34	23	20	24	48	44	36	38	39
25 to 34	17	13	15	15	15	38	30	30	30	30
35 to 49	26	22	19	22	21	47	40	42	41	41
50 to 64	28	24	23	23	24	44	38	38	36	38
65 to 74	36	36	28	32	29	50	49	39	42	42
75 and over	28	31	22	29	25	40	43	35	37	32

Table 2.3 shows that those aged 65-74 years had the highest rates of monthly (29%) and annual (42%) volunteering. This has been the case in every year that the Community Life Survey has been completed other than for annual volunteering in 2015-16. Bartels, Cozzi and Mantovan (2013) identified an increase in voluntary activity post-retirement in those who did not volunteer while they were employed full-time. Volunteering at this age may be fostered by individuals being in the early years of their retirement, and thus transitioning from paid work (Baines and Hardill, 2008), but also having time whilst being in good health.

The data shown in Table 2.3 illustrates adults aged 25-34 years have consistently had the lowest rate of volunteering formally across all age groups and all years. This may be due to the fact that this is a period where individuals are focusing on establishing their careers and, perhaps, families and so have less time to volunteer.

There have been policies relating to and encouraging youth volunteering for many years. Since the year 2000 the schemes and initiatives have included Millennium Volunteers (Maton et al., 1999), V Inspired (2018) and the current NCS which was launched as part of the then Coalition Government's *Big Society* vision (The Cabinet Office, 2010). It is therefore interesting to note the relatively low rates of monthly volunteering in the 16-24-year age group. This may be due to school initiatives and participation in activities such as the NCS, which often take place at one point per academic year. However, what is not accounted for is that in spite of the initiatives identified here there has been a downward trend in volunteering rates for this age group since the Community Life Survey was first administered.

Table 2-4: Ethnicity of formal volunteers (The Cabinet Office, 2015)

Percentages	Formal Volunteering									
	At least once a month					At least once in the **last year**				
	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18
Total	27	25	21	22	22	45	40	37	37	38
White	27	26	21	23	23	45	40	37	37	38
Asian	21	12	15	17	18	40	31	36	36	36
Black	32	…	38	25	24	53	..	52	41	40
Mixed	34	25	26	16	19	51	43	34	28	34
Other	15	…	29	23	18	45	..	48	44	29

As part of the Community Life Survey, The Government asks respondents to self-identify their ethnic background which they define as follows:

> There is no single agreed international definition of ethnicity and race or of the distinction between the two … The Office of National Statistics (ONS) and the United Nations Statistics Division both describe ethnicity as a broader concept which includes or combines nationality, citizenship, race, colour, language, religion, and customs of dress or eating (The Cabinet Office, 2018c, np).

Table 2.4 illustrates a very mixed level of participation in formal volunteering across ethnic groups and across the years of the Community Life Survey. However, one might tentatively conclude that there tend to be higher rates of formal volunteering by the Black respondents and lower rates of formal volunteering evidenced by the Asian respondents.

If volunteering is beneficial then it is important that all groups in society are able to access and engage with appropriate opportunities. As Freire urges, 'action on the side of the oppressed must be … action *with* the oppressed' (1996, p. 48). Where volunteering supports the provision of services traditionally delivered by local authorities, as discussed in section 2.6, or which explicitly works with minority groups to address their oppression, there is a moral and ethical duty to involve the communities concerned. In work with young people this includes adults from that community. Furthermore, where volunteering includes activities which could also be deemed as social action it is critical that all groups in society feel able to participate in order to both feel part of the society in which they live but also to contribute to it (The Cabinet Office, 2018a).

Additionally, diversity in the youth workforce is important both to ensure that there are a range of role models for young people (Sapin, 2013b) but also because diverse staff teams are more likely to lead to the development of mutual understanding between all groups. Whilst the following was said about Boards of Trustees the same is very true of all teams in work with young people: 'diverse membership of charity boards can help those boards make better decisions and improve the quality of governance' (Charity Commission, 2017, np).

Through volunteering, adults and the young people that access the projects they support, can meet people from other ethnicities, identity characteristics or interest, from their own and in doing so learn about themselves and others (Gilchrist, 2001). In asking respondents to the Community Life Survey (Cabinet Office, 2018) about the diversity of their social group there is an implicit notion that more contact with members from other groups is better for an inclusive society. In 2017-18 the percentages remained consistent with the previous year's findings with 16% of participants stating that their friends were the same age group as them, 40% of people were from the same ethnic group as them and 19% reported that all their friends had a similar level of education (The National Council for Voluntary Organisations, 2018c). The only change was with regard to those who said all their friends were from the same religious group as them with an increase of 3% since 2013-14 (25% in 2013-14 to 28% in 2017-18).

Table 2-5: Volunteering by employment status (The Department for Digital Culture Media & Sport, 2018)

	Formal Volunteering									
	At least **once a month**					At least once in the **last year**				
	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18
Total	**27**	**25**	**21**	**22**	**22**	**45**	**40**	**37**	**37**	**38**
In employment	25	22	22	22	22	46	38	42	40	41
Unemployed	23	22	27	23	19	39	38	39	38	34
Economically inactive	31	32	25	29	29	45	43	38	40	40

During the period this research has been undertaken, the way in which participants employment status was measured in the Community Life Survey has changed. Rather than eight categories there are now three: in employment, unemployed and economically inactive.

Table 2.5 illustrates that during 2017/18 those in employment volunteered more frequently at least once a year, but only 1% more than individuals who were economically in active, who have fairly consistently volunteered more, on a monthly basis, than the other two groups since the Community Life Survey began. The Government refers to 'economically inactive' individuals as those who are neither in employment nor unemployed. Individuals may be inactive for many reasons including being students, looking after family or being long-term sick (Department for Communities and Local Government, 2010). Baines and Hardill (2008) identified that volunteering met both the same needs as 'paid work' for the volunteers in this group, but also that the organisations that they volunteered with relied upon them to undertake their work. Therefore, the notion of being 'economically inactive' is disputable and this is further supported when considering that many students work as well as study, although it is unclear, with the revised way of collecting this data, the impact of student volunteering on the data.

Previously they were the second biggest group of volunteers (Institute for Volunteering Research, 2014). This number may rise with the increase in focus in what is referred to as service-learning (Felten and Clayton, 2009) in the United States and placement or work-based learning (Dalrymple, Kemp and Smith, 2014) activities in Higher Education in England, which were being adopted to support the UK Government's 'Employability Agenda' (The Higher Education Academy, 2015). The impact of the rise in employer supported volunteering on the data for those in employment is also unclear (Low *et al.*, 2007). Bowen et al (2009) argue that service-learning and employer-supported volunteer programmes share many of the same characteristics and so may impact upon the data for those two groups in similar ways. These initiatives will not be explored any further in this literature review as they are outside the remit of this research. However, they do contribute to the development of a culture (Thompson, 2012) of volunteering which will be discussed in greater detail in this chapter.

Respondents to the Community Life Survey who were unemployed were generally least likely to volunteer. The definition of being unemployed adopted by the Community Life Survey is not being in employment and not seeking work within the last four weeks and/or are unable to start work within the next 2 weeks (Office for National Statistics, 2018). It is concerning that the rates of volunteering for this group has decreased significantly over the last three years. This may be the outcome of The Government's austerity measures taking their toll (Forster, 2017; Stuckler *et al.*, 2017) and the deleterious impact of Universal Credit on every aspect of claimants lives (Cheetham *et al.*, 2019). Unemployed volunteers were even less likely to give their time on a monthly basis than annually. This is particularly important as regular volunteering is more likely to result in positive outcomes and learning opportunities, as discussed throughout this chapter.

Another factor affecting the differing volunteer rates across the groups is that those in employment may also have more energy and a sense of having something to offer than those who are unemployed. Clark and Oswald found that individuals who were unemployed had 'much lower levels of mental well-being than those in work' (1994, p.658) which will inevitably impact upon individuals' ability to participate in social activities. As such, a group who might benefit most from volunteering are unable to, and as certain groups are more likely to be unemployed in England, such as members of the Black African community (Hartley and Platt, 2016), certain groups will be even more unfairly excluded by these issues and their isolation and marginalisation will be compounded (Hill Collins and Bilge, 2016).

Table 2-6: Volunteering with a disability (The Department for Digital Culture Media & Sport, 2018)

	Formal Volunteering									
	At least **once a month**					At least once in the **last year**				
	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18
Total	**27**	**25**	**21**	**22**	**22**	**45**	**40**	**37**	**37**	**38**
LLTI/Disability	29	25	23	24	24	44	38	38	38	38
No LLTI/Disability	27	26	23	24	24	46	41	41	41	42

The Department of Digital, Culture, Media and Sport define LLTI as:

> A limiting long-term illness or disability is classified as someone having any physical or mental health conditions or illnesses which are expected to last for 12 months or more and their condition and/or illness reduces their ability to carry out day to day activities (The Department for Digital Culture Media & Sport, 2018, p.D1).

As the figures in Table 2-6 shows, there were no difference in monthly volunteering rates between the two groups over the periods 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18. Whilst Baines and Hardill (2008) spoke to volunteers with a disability for whom volunteering was a positive part of their identity respondents without a limiting long-term illness or disability were more likely to volunteer annually in England. Just as with mental health issues limiting unemployed individuals ability to volunteer, individuals with a long-term illness or disability may face a range of challenges when volunteering which may be mitigated against over time but aggravated by individual events, an example being stress induced by unfamiliar surroundings, and where the benefits of volunteering over time may outweigh the perceived costs (Balandin et al., 2006). This is an important avenue for further debate and research but there is no capacity to do so in this particular review.

Table 2-7: Reasons for formal volunteering (The Department for Digital Culture Media & Sport, 2018)

Reasons for volunteering	Percentages				
	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18
I wanted to improve things/help people	55	53	52	49	46
I wanted to meet people/make friends	26	28	26	26	25
The cause was really important to me	35	32	35	32	31
My friends/family did it	17	15	16	15	16
It was connected to the needs of my family/friends	19	18	21	19	18
I felt there was a need in my community	24	20	23	22	21
I thought it would give me a chance to learn new skills	18	20	14	16	17
I thought it would give me a chance to use my existing skills	26	27	22	24	24
It helps me get on in my career	9	8	7	7	7
Its part of my religious belief to help people	15	16	16	15	16
Its part of my philosophy of life to help people	23	24	23	20	19
it gave me a chance to get a recognised qualification	2	2	2	2	2
I had spare time to do it	27	29	25	28	25
I felt there was no one else to do it	8	8	8	8	7
None of these	4	6	5	4	5

Respondents to the Community Life Survey give a range of reasons as to why they volunteer. The first four main reasons have been the same over the five years this data has been collected: 'I wanted to improve things/help people'; 'The cause was really important to me'; 'I had spare time to do it'; 'I wanted to meet people/make friends'. These are clearly then the main drivers for volunteering in England.

‘It gave me a chance to get a recognised qualification’ was consistently the least important driver for volunteering, which is important as this research is concerned with the learning which takes place through adults volunteering activity. Respondents to the survey were consistently more likely to identify that ‘I thought it would give me a chance to use my existing skills’ as a reason to volunteer over ‘I thought it would give me a chance to learn new skills’. This is important as it begins to illuminate how adults perceive their volunteering and their relationship with it. Whilst this chapter is exploring volunteer rates across different groups it is important to note that ‘self-depreciation is another characteristic of the oppressed … almost never do they realize that they, too, ‘know things’’ (Freire, 1996, p. 45). Whilst more respondents do feel that they have more to share than to learn an intersectional analysis (Hill Collins and Bilge, 2016) of this data would provide a much richer representation of the dynamics at play and which skills or capitals are being valued. Intersectionality will be discussed further later in this chapter and these motivations will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 5 in relation to the motivations of adult volunteers in work with young people.

Table 2-8: Reasons for not volunteering or not volunteering more frequently (The Department for Digital Culture Media & Sport, 2018)

Reasons for not volunteering or not volunteering more frequently	Percentages				
	2013-14	2014-15	2015-16	2016-17	2017-18
I have work commitments	57	52	52	52	51
I have to look after children/the home	31	26	27	25	26
I have to look after someone who is elderly or ill	7	7	8	8	8
I have to study	17	10	12	11	11
I do other things with my spare time	32	41	37	35	37
I’m not the right age	6	8	7	7	7
I don't know any groups that need help	22	13	12	12	12
I haven't heard about opportunities to give help/ I couldn’t find opportunities	22	11	11	12	12
I'm new to the area	10	6	7	6	6
I have never thought about it	10	16	17	17	15
I have an illness or disability that I feel prevents me from getting involved	9	9	10	11	10
It is not my responsibility	..	4	4	3	4
Other reason	3	2	2	2	3

Since the 2014-15 survey, all respondents who indicated they did no formal volunteering, or who did formal volunteering less often than once a month were asked about the barriers. Prior to this, in 2013-14, only respondents who had previously indicated that they would like to volunteer more frequently were asked about their perceived barriers to volunteering.

Three reasons have been the most important since the 2013/14 survey, so they are clearly the main barriers to volunteering or not volunteering more frequently for adult volunteers in England: I have work commitments'; 'I do other things with my spare time'; 'I have to look after children/the home'. Since 2014/15 'I have never thought about it' has consistently been the fourth ranked reason, which suggests that this might have been an important reason for those for were included in these questions from that date.

When considered critically, many of these barriers are really the same thing: 'I have work commitments'; 'I do other things with my spare time'; 'I have to look after children/the home'; 'I have to study', and 'I have to look after someone who is elderly or ill' are all, in fact, related to time. Despite concerns regarding an increase in part-time, low paid and unstable work (Full Fact, 2019), which might impact on individuals' ability to volunteer, the response rate to 'I have work commitments' has reduced over the period of the Community Life Survey. These responses will be explored in greater detail in relation to the barriers to volunteering in work with young people in Chapter 5. However, what is not clear from this data is whether there were any trends in these responses from specific groups as discussed in this chapter.

2.3.2 Intersectionality

Tables 2-1 – 2-8 present the identities of the respondents to the Community Life Survey (2018) in a simplistic and discrete manner which fails to capture volunteers' identities holistically. Something that the authors of the Community Life Survey acknowledge:

> There are likely to be interactions between different demographics reported in this publication. For example, ethnic groups have different age and regional profiles. This report focuses on individual characteristics, so differences cited here cannot necessarily be attributed directly to the characteristic being described (2018, np).

Professional work with young people identifies that individuals, families and communities face multiple oppressions (Thompson, 2012). This is the notion that an individual's sex, race, religion, language, class, age, sexuality, disability and other aspects of their identity may lead to their discrimination and oppression based upon the inequitable nature of our social and political structures (Thompson, 2012). This means that a woman may not just face the oppressions faced by her sex but by her race, class and economic background amongst other identities. Given the social stratification of the United Kingdom (UK) and the issues inherent in our social structure (Warwick-Booth, 2013) it is argued that certain characteristics have a greater impact upon an individual's future success and opportunities than others. For example, white, low SES males were outperformed in their secondary studies by every other ethnic minority group from low SES backgrounds except Black Caribbean males (Strand, 2014). Black and Ethnic Minority students are more likely to attain worse outcomes in their education (Worrall, 2017), less likely to enter the 'best' Higher Educational institutions such as Oxford and Cambridge (Full Fact, 2018) and are therefore less likely to achieve the enduring outcomes that graduates of such institutions do (Baker, 2017).

Intersectionality is very similar to the notion of multiple oppressions but is perhaps more widely adopted in social and educational research (Davis, Brunn-Bevel and Olive, 2015) as well as feminist discourse and so will be the term utilised to represent these ideas throughout this thesis as I critically explore the differing experiences of adults volunteering in work with young people in England.

2.3.3 Who volunteers in work with young people?

There are currently no up-to-date figures regarding who volunteers in work with young people in England. This is predominantly due to the fact that there is no single organisation responsible for overseeing this work. Traditionally, in England, the National Youth Agency (NYA) oversaw and monitored youth work in Local Authorities via Annual Audits (The National Youth Agency, 2007) whereas the National Council for Voluntary Youth Services (NCVYS) supported the voluntary sector. Neither of these agencies specifically collated statistics for volunteers in work with young people and therefore it has been left to organisations to monitor their volunteers as appropriate or needed. However, in 2007 the NYA (2007) estimated that there were 500,000 volunteers in the voluntary, community and faith sectors who worked with young people.

There is a strong tradition of developing youth participation within work with young people (Sapin, 2013a). This work often involves developing young leaders, some of whom will continue to maintain their roles as volunteers into adulthood, whilst some will enter a career in the profession and others will move away from the sector completely. At this point the literature exploring youth volunteering opportunities, for example its impact upon lifelong volunteering, may have some relevance (Mcfarland and Thomas, 2006; Haski-Leventhal *et al.*, 2008) but whilst it is not the remit of this research to explore this further at this time how this support the development of a volunteer habitus (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1990) or culture (Thompson, 2012).

2.4 Volunteering Literature

The following section of this review will explore the literature regarding volunteering generally. It will critically discuss the literature regarding volunteering in England, beginning by setting the context with an exploration of recent volunteering research before moving on to an exploration of the literature exploring volunteers' motivation, management and religious affiliation. This review will then move on to discuss the benefits of volunteering to the volunteer, including exploring how volunteering can support the development of human capital (Gratton and Ghoshal, 2003), facilitate learning (Duguid, Mundel and Schugurensky, 2013) and its contribution to social mobility. Finally, volunteering's contribution to society will be discussed in relation to social policy, institutional theory and creating a culture (Thompson, 2012) of volunteering.

2.4.1 Recent History

Whilst Milligan and Fyfe (2004) identify that research concerning the voluntary sector has grown in significance in the United Kingdom (UK) since the mid 1980s, research concerning volunteering has gained momentum since the early 1990s. Whilst early work in the field was noticeably concerned with the experiences of adult volunteers, the volunteering activity participated in by young people has increasingly been the focus of research according to Cemalcilar (2009). However, in making this claim Cemalcilar (2009) fails to recognise another clearly identifiable area of research, which focuses on older volunteers (Rouse, Shirley and Clawson, 1992; Musick and Wilson, 2003; Principi, Chiatti and Lamura, 2012). Whilst Davila and Diaz-Morales (2009) explore how volunteers' motives change throughout their lives, most research focuses on a specific life-stage, particularly young people and retirees. There is also a growing body of literature on volunteering in specific fields (Clary et al. 1998; Farmer & Fedor 1999; Finkelstien 2009).

In his article on volunteering, Wilson (2000) reviewed the literature available at the time and in doing so identified the following themes: rates; theories of volunteering; motives, values and beliefs; human capital; exchange theory; social resources; demographic correlates of volunteering; contextual effects; commitment and consequences. However, these themes should be listed in this manner with caution, as they are interlinked and often interdependent rather than being separate or distinct.

Much of the research already undertaken in this domain has been undertaken in America (Kemmelmeier, 2006; Einolf, 2011; Rotolo and Wilson, 2011) and Europe (Dávila and Díaz-Morales, 2009; Principi, Chiatti and Lamura, 2012), although volunteering has been researched in other parts of the world, some of which has included data from the UK (Hackl, Halla and Pruckner, 2010).

2.4.2 Motivation

Whilst Wilson is sceptical of the existence of 'identifiable drives, needs, or impulses that might inspire volunteerism' (2000, p.218), one of the largest areas of research in this domain is that which focuses on motivation (Pearce, 1993): 'the processes that initiate, direct, and sustain (voluntary) action' (Clary et al. 1998, p.1517). One contributing factor to this is that the vast majority of work in this area has been undertaken from a psychological perspective as will be outlined further in chapter 3, section 3.3.2.

Wilson (2000) identifies two main perspectives on volunteering: subjective and behaviourist. He describes the subjective perspective as assuming a necessary characteristic in the individual and relegates the context to the background. This perspective is concerned with understanding individuals' motives for volunteering. The behaviourist perspective presupposes that humans are rational and 'driven by fairly simple mechanisms while treating the context in which those mechanisms work as complex' (Wilson, 2000, p.218). This perspective reasons that volunteers decide whether or not to give their time having considered the costs versus the benefits depending upon their own personal circumstances.

However, a combination of the two approaches appears to make more sense when considering the broad literature in the field and the varied nature, drives and qualities of volunteers (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Whilst Wilson (2000) separates motivation and commitment in his identification of themes within the literature, Clary et al's (1998) definition clearly amalgamates the two and sees motivation as being an ongoing factor in volunteering, informing the decision to continue to volunteer, as opposed to just a factor in the initial decision.

Motivation theories were initially influenced by the work of Maslow (1954), whose model of need is still utilised in work with young people today. Haivas et al (2014) state that since the 1950s there has been a shift to exploring the process of motivation, as characterised by the identification and pursuit of goals, and then a move towards Self-Determination Theory to understand and conceptualise volunteers' behaviour. Through SDT, Ryan and Deci (2000) postulate that human beings have three, inherent, psychological needs. These are:

- competence, i.e. the need to feel effective and able;
- autonomy, i.e. the need to be independent and self-regulating;
- relatedness, i.e. to be connected to others.

Whilst not totally unrelated to Self-Determination Theory, another motivating factor identified by authors is the innate characteristics and commitments of the individuals concerned (Millette and Gagné, 2008). These include values such as altruism (Andreoni, 1990) and pro-social characteristics (Carlo *et al.*, 2005) or a 'personal crisis' (Gouthro, 2012, p.53). The difference between altruism and pro-social characteristics is that altruism is an act that benefits another person, which may even have some costs to the 'actor', whereas pro-social behaviour helps others or has positive social outcomes which may also benefit the individual. Volunteering as a result of a personal crisis may include volunteering for a particular organisation or cause as it has come to affect you, such as fundraising for a hospice which cared for a family member.

Another way that the literature approaches motivation is to differentiate between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation being defined by Finkelstein as being motivated by external factors, such as career ambitions, compared to intrinsic motivations which are 'actions undertaken because they are inherently interesting or in some way satisfying' (2009, p.654).

Ryan and Deci (2000) argue for a clear distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation with the former being inherently enjoyable or interesting and promotes, in their model, meeting individuals' needs for autonomy and competence. Whereas, the latter is the undertaking of 'an activity in order to attain some separable outcome' (Ryan and Deci, 2000, p.71), for example, volunteering to lead a Sunday school session to comply with the expectation that everyone takes their turn doing so, which supports individuals' need for relatedness. However, a wider review of the literature would suggest that there are currently a range of ways that researchers are approaching the idea of volunteer motivation, although clearly these approaches often overlap with one another.

Just as with altruism (Andreoni, 1990) and pro-social motivations (Carlo *et al.*, 2005), the literature highlights a lack of clarity in the distinction between extrinsic and intrinsic motivations (Degli, 2009) and that 'in many cases, the two motivations come together' (Frey, 1997, p.14). This is supported by Bales who asserts 'volunteers were motivated by a mix of altruism, self-interest and sociability' (1996, p. 209) and Clary and Snyder (1999) who found that volunteers had multiple motivations, which they argue means that motivations cannot be aligned to either altruism or egotism. Therefore, rather than wrestling with these tensions, it may be concluded that volunteering can support volunteers to meet multiple motivations.

Wilson (2000) contends that for some the fact that volunteering benefits others negates the need to even consider another motive. However, Finkelstein (2009) asserts that volunteers who are extrinsically motivated respond to external rewards, which suggests that these individuals do not volunteer unless they can see a benefit to themselves, whereas roles which are inherently satisfying appealed to intrinsically motivated volunteers (ibid) implying that these individuals principally volunteer to help others. Other researchers argue that volunteering is as good for the volunteer as it is for the recipient (Wilson and Musick, 1999; Borgonovi, 2008) making the extrinsic/intrinsic debate less important. For Finkelstein (2009) the idea that volunteering is compatible and consistent with an individual's sense of self is the most important factor.

Pearce (1993) argues that the motivation to volunteer initially and the motivation to continue to volunteer are distinct and different whereas it has already been acknowledged that Clary et al (1998) believe motivation is an ongoing process. Finkelstein (2009) asserts that developing a 'volunteer identity' is an important factor for volunteers in preserving a consistency between their notion of self and how they act, which is more congruent with Clary et al (1998).

Despite the age of the article, Mueller's (1975) work is still pertinent to contemporary considerations of volunteer motivation. She asks 'why a utility-maximizing "economic man (or woman)" would find it rational to do work for free' (Mueller, 1975, p.326)? Mueller categorises four main motivations which include and builds upon the above. She identifies (i) altruism and (ii) family members benefitting from the activity being volunteered in, such as a child attending the activity. She also recognises that (iii) volunteers may benefit from increased prestige due to their volunteering and may (iv) develop their human capital, which will be discussed later in this chapter.

Whatever the merits of the four benefits of volunteering that Mueller (1975) perceives, her initial framing of the decision being financial is noteworthy and an approach that recent governments have taken in their location of volunteering within their employability or welfare to work policies (Baines and Hardill, 2008). However, that is an approach which both fails to take in to account the holistic benefits of volunteering to the volunteer (Chen, 2015) but also fails to understand the ways in which organisations depend upon and utilise volunteers to undertake their work (Baines and Hardill, 2008).

Whilst Mueller's work may be over 40 years old, it is still relevant today as she not only identified her four categories to classify the benefits gained from volunteering many years before much of the literature discussed in this chapter, but she also understood volunteering holistically. She appreciated the context in which volunteering takes place and understood the less idealistic perspectives on voluntarism. Furthermore, the motivations identified by subsequent researchers can be aligned to Mueller's model.

Dean (2016) observes that despite its value in exploring the structure-agency debate of volunteer motivation as well as a lack of class diversity within volunteers, Bourdieu's (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1990) notion of habitus is generally absent from the literature. In his research into class diversity within youth volunteering, Dean (2016) makes a clear argument for the value of using habitus as a lens through which to explore volunteering. He argues that 'just as the propensity to formally volunteer becomes part of one's habitus, the propensity not to do so also becomes inhabited' (2016, p.18). He also identifies the importance of the adults involved in youth volunteering in reinforcing the status quo. Another model which illustrates the ways in which social ideologies and inequalities are reinforced is Thompson's PCS Model (2012) which explains how Personal, Cultural and Social structures and systems work together to create cultural norms. Thompson (2012) primarily uses it to explain how oppression and discrimination in our society are reinforced but it can also be used to understand how all society values and behaviours are established and advanced.

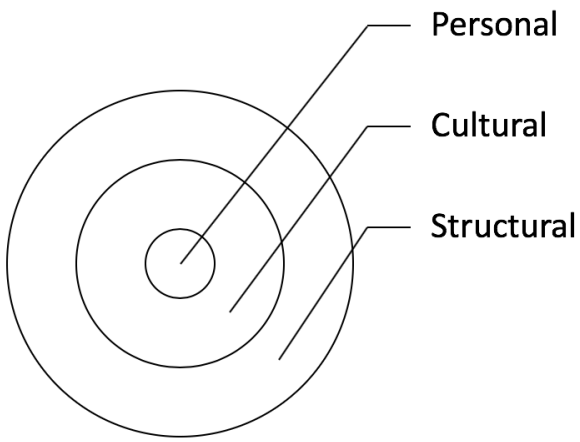

Figure 2-1: PCS analysis (Thompson, 2012)

Thompson (2012) identifies the role of different layers of society in perpetuating the status quo of oppression, discrimination and inequality beyond describing 'what we do round here'. This analysis offers ways for thinking about effecting change, or at least where the power lies to effect change at each level, and the experiences of different groups in society which adds value to an intersectional approach (Hill Collins and Bilge, 2016).

Whilst the 'P', representing our personal values and beliefs, sits in the middle of the diagram, the three layers act upon each other in a dynamic manner. The 'C' represents the cultural level; the context, norms and values of the communities in which we live. Finally, the 'S' represents the structural levels in society in which 'oppression and discrimination are 'institutionalised'' (Thompson, 2012, p.34). As such, the PCS analysis supports the critical consideration of these structures demonstrating how behaviours are sewn into the fabric of society through institutions that establish and support both cultural norms and personal beliefs.

Within the context of volunteering, our personal values may motivate us to volunteer for a particular cause or reason. This may be strengthened by the shared values of the communities in which we live which in turn is reinforced by structural institutions such as sections of the media, religion and the Government which can cement these beliefs, through doctrine or policy. This is important for two reasons. Firstly, the organisations in which volunteering occurs are created by and reflect the values of the culture in which they are established and can reinforce the values, including discrimination and oppressions, of the community in which they are established. Secondly, it illustrates how actions at the cultural and structural levels reinforce individual's beliefs and behaviours and that in order to understand the broader factors which effect motivation and cause action it is important to acknowledge and understand the impact of the 'C' and 'S' levels on the 'P'. This is vital to effecting real societal change, should it be needed, as Thompson states: 'one of the advantages of using PCS analysis is that it shows the inadequacy of explanations which stop short at the individual level' (2012, p.36). This further supports the argument that whilst an individual's motivation to volunteer may be of interest it cannot be fully understood without exploring other social and political factors such as Government policy and how certain organisations rely on their volunteers to operate.

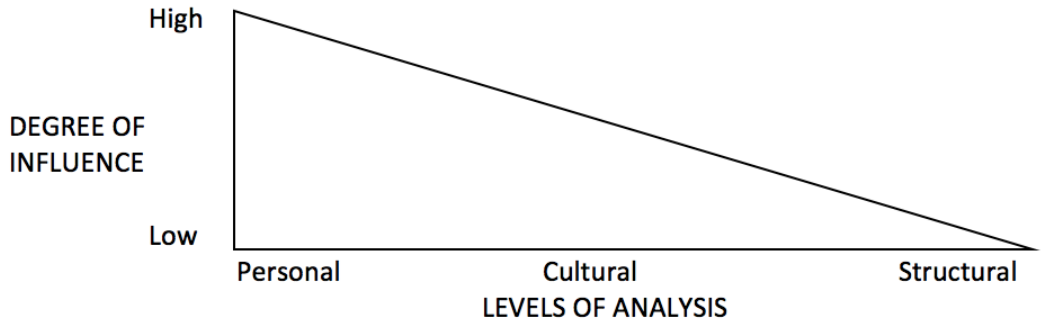

Figure 2-2: Degrees of influence (Thompson, 2012)

To effect real change, it is important to act on all levels. This means that on a personal or practitioner level one might have a high level of influence to effect personal change but limited or no ability to effect structural change. However, organisations can effect change within their own culture and if a field of practice, such a work with young people, can develop an understanding of its work then there is a greater opportunity to effect structural change. This is particularly important in relation to volunteering in activities which aim to bring about social change.

The range of perspectives within the literature can also be represented by the inventories developed to research and measure it, which have tended to do so from either a functionalist (Clary et al. 1998; Clary & Snyder 1999; Stukas et al. 1999; Penner 2002) or attitudinal perspective (Webb, Green and Brashear, 1992; Bègue, 2002; Bennett, 2003; Sargeant and Woodliffe, 2007). How these approaches have informed this research will be considered in chapter 3.

2.4.3 Volunteer management

A substantial section of the literature which explores what motivates people to start volunteering does so from a volunteer management perspective (Wisner *et al.*, 2005; Millette and Gagné, 2008; Bang, Ross and Reio, 2013; Willems and Walk, 2013). This section of the literature endeavours to address the issues surrounding how to recruit and maintain volunteers (Schlegelmilch and Tynan, 1989; Bussell and Forbes, 2002; Waters and Bortree, 2012). This was not one of the themes explicitly identified by Wilson (2000), but it does feature within his discussion and analysis of the those he identifies.

The literature also highlights the need to understand and explore long-term motivations in order to sustain continuing involvement in an organisation as Omoto and Snyder (1995) identified that the volunteers who reported higher levels of satisfaction were those whose volunteering was meeting their aims. They also found that these volunteers were more likely to volunteer for longer periods of time. This may be particularly relevant to VCS organisations due to the cost of recruitment and training volunteers, and the pressure of delivering services (Manetti *et al.*, 2014).

One area which is rarely addressed by the literature is the ethicality surrounding volunteer recruitment in particular, but also the reliance on volunteers to provide services which were traditionally provided by The Government (Bales, 1996). Of the former Duguid et al refer to 'coerced volunteerism' (2013, p. 2), to indicate the types of volunteering undertaken by demographic groups that are disadvantaged by current structures, such as those who use their volunteering to increase their employment prospects. However, the ways in which volunteering is generally advertised as a 'panacea' (Baines and Hardill, 2008) to meet everyone's needs is also problematic. In many organisations this creates a 'mixed economy' of paid staff and unpaid volunteers which should create an ethical dilemma regarding how to 'use' the volunteers time effectively factored against ensuring that their needs are met. This is complicated in work with young people by the need to put young people's needs first.

2.4.4 Religious affiliation

Another substantial section of the literature regarding volunteer motivation explores religious affiliation. Sixty five studies were found which had explored the role of religion as either the sole or one of a number of motivational factors (Carpenter and Myers, 2010; Einolf, 2011; Son and Wilson, 2012; Schuyt, Smit and Bekkers, 2013; Eccles, 2014).

Faith-based work with young people has increased its market size in recent years (Stanton, 2013; Thompson, 2019). This claim is informed by Government reports which assert that faith-based work may be filling some of the gaps in provision left by Local Authority cuts (House of Commons, 2011). Additionally, some religious organisations have the infrastructure and funding to sustain them through times of financial hardship as well as the organisational motivation to continue, where Local Authorities do not (ibid). In work with young people there may be a lack of clarity as to whether an organisation or group is primarily faith-based: a prime example of which is The Girl Guides which changed its promise in 2013 to remove any references to serving god (Morrison, 2013). Whilst a group may be funded by a faith-based organisation the aim may not to be to promote their faith (Stanton, 2013) and even if it is, it is not clear that this will effect young people's enthusiasm for participating in the project or work of the organisation.

Research has found that religious people do not necessarily just volunteer in religious settings but secular settings too (Borgonovi, 2014). This reinforces the perspectives discussed already regarding whether the characteristics of the individual volunteer are informing their actions or whether the context of volunteering is more important (Wilson, 2000). It reinforces the findings identified by Nesbit (2012) that a key factor affecting people's likelihood to volunteer is 'volunteer proximity' i.e. having friends and family members who volunteer (Bekkers, 2005) or being directly asked to volunteer by someone you know. Although Omoto and Snyder (2002) argue that volunteer proximity can be developed as people who volunteer become part of a wider 'volunteer' community which includes both those in receipt of service and fellow volunteers. This is reinforced when considering volunteering through Thompson's (2012) PCS model: by volunteering, we live in a culture of volunteering and thus volunteering becomes a natural thing to do. The 'challenge' is how to create a culture of volunteering where one does not already exist. This will be discussed further in section 2.5.

2.5 Volunteering's contribution to the volunteer

Whatever their initial motivation/s, volunteering can greatly benefit the volunteer (Wilson and Musick, 1999) and increase their general well-being (Thoits and Hewitt, 2001; Kahana *et al.*, 2013). Positive personal outcomes may not be an individual's main motivation for their volunteering but these important outcomes of their 'giving' should not be underestimated or ignored.

Individuals' motivation to continue to volunteer may be supported by identifying that there are benefits to them doing so. These benefits, either to the organisation, recipient or themselves have been identified by a number of authors (Goic and Jeroncic, 2007; Baines and Hardill, 2008; Borgonovi, 2014). What is clear from the literature is that the value of volunteering should not be limited to the acquisition of employability skills (Duguid, Mundel and Schugurensky, 2013) not least of all because a career in the field being volunteered in is not certain. As Keuhn and Corrigan (2013) refer to it, volunteering can be a form of hope labour: 'un- or under-compensated work carried out in the present, often for experience or exposure, in the hope that future employment opportunities may follow' (p.9). Volunteering in such circumstances may reinforce or widen inequalities by encouraging individuals to participate in activities which will not support them to learn the skills or develop the attributes that they need. Furthermore, if volunteering is promoted as the only way to realise outcomes, whether they are achievable or not, can it really be said to be volunteering? Finally, in certain cases, volunteering as a form of hope labour reinforces the status quo through promoting the dominant way of life and purporting to be the way to access it. As Freire states: 'sharing (that) way of life becomes an overpowering aspiration' (1996, p. 44), ensuring people expend their energy on trying to join the dominant way of life rather than challenge it.

2.5.1 Human Capital

Volunteering has many benefits for the volunteer but the main ones identified throughout the literature (Dolnicar and Randle, 2007; Bartels, Cozzi and Mantovan, 2013) are the development of Human and Social Capital and, public good or 'civic virtue' (Smith, 2001). Human Capital refers to 'the properties of individuals' (Smith, 2007) whereas Social Capital is the 'connections among individuals – social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them' (Smith, 2001). Civic virtue has been defined by as 'the capacity to discern the true public interest and a motivation to act in the public interest' (Taylor, 2011, p.259).

There is incongruity in focus across the literature on either Social Capital or Human Capital. However, for the purposes of this review the focus will be on Human Capital as the volunteering concerned is placed within a form of practice. In the context of work with young people Human Capital refers to the inherent resources of an individual which can be used to create value for themselves and others i.e. the skills, knowledge and understanding that they could offer to the organisation or group that they are volunteering in (Gratton and Ghoshal, 2003).

In Figure 2-3 Gratton and Ghoshal (2003) identify three types of capital which together composes an individual's Human Capital: intellectual, social and emotional capital and therefore volunteering which develops individuals human capital would develop these three capitals.

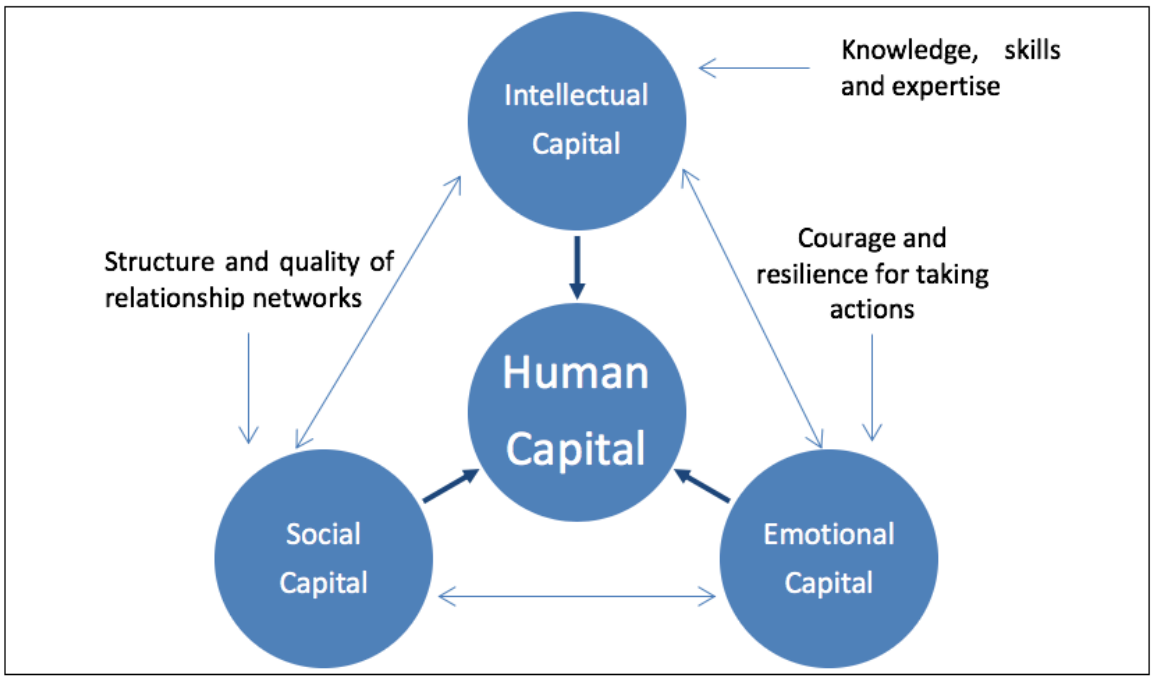

Figure 2-3: Human Capital (Gratton & Ghoshal, 2003, p. 2)

While the development of Human Capital might be an outcome of volunteering for individuals, Ward & Mckillop (2011) did not find evidence that people are motivated to volunteer in order to develop it. Though volunteers may not use the expression 'Human Capital', one would expect them to identify with notions of developing relationship networks (social capital) and new skills or knowledge (intellectual capital). Although Duguid et al (2013) suggest that the latter may be less likely if the individual is volunteering to share their knowledge or skills with others without consideration of what they may learn from the process, Mueller (1975) argues that these volunteers may benefit from a rise in prestige which may not increase their intellect but will positively build their capital in this domain.

It is important to note that other authors found volunteers did express, albeit implicitly, that developing human capital was a motivation for volunteering (Day and Devlin, 1998; Musick and Wilson, 2008). The group that identified this the most tended to be younger volunteers (Musick and Wilson, 2008).

Paradoxically, individuals need to draw on their capital in order to effectively volunteer (Wilson and Musick, 1998). This appeared to be supported by the Community Life Survey, particularly in how the socio-economic status of volunteers was represented up until 2013-14 (Institute for Volunteering Research 2014). In the final year of data collection in this manner 55% of those in higher managerial, and lower managerial (1-2), 43% of those in intermediate occupations and small employers (3-4), 36% of those in lower supervisory and semi-routine occupations (5-6) and 28% of those in routine occupations (7) volunteered annually. This illustrates a clear differentiation in volunteering rates across the different socio-economic groups. However, the NCVO identify that:

> there is no simple relationship between deprivation and rates of formal volunteering. In general, those in less deprived areas are more likely to volunteer than those in the most deprived: for example, 33% volunteered regularly in the least deprived areas of England (i.e. in the 10% least deprived Lower Super Output Areas) compared with 23% in the most deprived. However, there lowest rates of regular volunteering are in fact in the 5th decile (at 19%), and high rates are also shown in the 2nd and 4th deciles (both 28%). In addition, the 3rd-most deprived decile also gives the highest number of hours to volunteering on a monthly basis (2016, n.d.).

It is therefore clear that further research is needed to explore the factors which affect different groups' propensity for volunteering and gain a greater understanding of the barriers to particular groups (Cemalcilar, 2009). This is particularly important when considering the role of volunteering in the fostering of social mobility, which will be discussed in further detail later in this chapter.

2.5.2 Volunteering as Learning

Volunteering has the propensity, if organised appropriately, to create opportunities for formal (Mueller, 1975), non-formal (Alheit, 2009) and informal learning (Duguid, Mundel and Schugurensky, 2013). Formal learning generally takes place in an educational organisation or formal setting and is usually recognised with a certificate or qualification whereas non-formal learning may occur within a more formal activity, either one off or as part of a programme but does not usually lead to any form of official recognition (Cameron and Harrison, 2012). Finally, informal learning, as practised in youth work, is 'unintentional learning from life's experiences' (Sapin, 2013b, p.243).

McCabe (1997) recognises that there are mixed practices across VCS organisations with training and learning being core to the volunteer contract with some, such as those that provide counselling services. However, elsewhere the training and learning needs of the volunteer, both formal and informal, are challenges to be addressed (UK Youth, 2018). Kerka (1998) identifies the parallels between volunteering and adult education, whereas Gouthro (2012) explores the connections between adult education and social action. Formal volunteering takes place in communities (Bekkers, 2005; Paik and Navarre-Jackson, 2010; van Goethem et al., 2014) and through affiliation with community organisations volunteers have the opportunity to join a community of practice or learning community (Wenger, 1998). Whilst the development of intellectual capital has already been identified as learning, volunteers may also learn more about themselves as they develop their emotional capital by participating in social activities. Though, it is Duguid et al (2013) who bring together the notions of volunteering, social action and informal learning: 'an area that has not been sufficiently covered in the research on work and education' (Schugurensky, 2013).

As such, work with young people has the opportunity to impact as meaningfully in the informal education of adults as it does in the lives of young people. Duguid et al (2013) assert that volunteers' learning moved from being tacit to explicit through the act of reflection and therefore this is a key element needed in positive volunteering activities. End of session opportunities for both paid and voluntary staff to reflect on the session have always been a facet of sessional youth work. However, these are not always present in all work with young people and where it does occur it often focuses on the young people's engagement and activity in the session and not the volunteers learning or experiences. This, again, emphasises the importance of professional workers within the volunteer setting. Not only can they facilitate the reflection undertaken by volunteers, but they also provide opportunities for informal learning as 'masters' supporting volunteers to become part of a community of practice (Wenger, 1998, p.29). This is important within a field of practice such as work with young people, where well-meaning volunteers could cross boundaries and actually cause harm through their actions (Sercombe, 2010).

Social learning theory 'posits that people learn from observing other people. By definition, such observations take place in a social setting' (Merriam, Caffarella and Baumgartner, 2007, p.134). The subject of volunteers' learning in practice settings benefit greatly by analysis with reference to a range of authors, such as Bourdieu's theory of cultural reproduction (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1990) which may be relevant to volunteering due to his focus on both class inequalities and education (Sullivan, 2002). John Dewey's (1938, 1998) work on experiential learning and research on workplace and vocational learning may also help to illuminate the subject as may Eraut's (2001) research into workplace learning. However, more research needs to be done in order to ascertain which is most relevant. What is clear is that informal learning undertaken through participating in volunteering activities contributes to individuals' lifelong learning (Duguid, Mundel and Schugurensky, 2013).

Mezirow (1997) argues that adult education can lead to transformative learning and such learning results in change. In volunteering, transformative learning may result in changes to an individual's frame of reference in terms of their understanding about the group or cause that they are volunteering for or in the ways in which they problem solve. Mezirow claims '(t)ransformative learning develops autonomous thinking' (1997, p.5); this is an essential skill for adults engaging in practice with young people, with the ability to reflect in and on action being dependent upon autonomous thinking (Boulton, 2010). This can be developed over time through formal training and informal conversations with experienced peers and professionals, whereby a volunteer may ask repeated questions or rely heavily on others for guidance initially, eventually progressing to competently handling complex situations and eventually mentoring others.

Duguid et al (2013) assert that volunteers need space to reflect and consciously consider the learning aspects of their experiences for them to gain explicit learning from their participation. For Dewey (1998) reflection is most effective when it 'enables us to direct our activities with foresight and to plan according to ends-in-view' (p.17), rather than leaving the outcomes to chance. Whilst the skills above can be learnt within a specific volunteer setting, they are clearly transferrable to other settings and to the volunteers' lives more generally.

However, if the types or outcomes of the learning that happens through volunteering are too narrowly prescribed by policy or cultural tradition then it does not encourage volunteers and their supporters to openly consider what has been learnt. Furthermore, it also reduces prospective volunteers' expectations of what could be learnt which may, unintentionally, negatively impact upon their motivation to volunteer. Furthermore, settings must be clear about the opportunities for learning available to adult volunteers within their settings and the literature and discourse surrounding volunteering needs to be explicit, and create a culture, where it is acceptable for volunteers to expect to learn and benefit from their volunteering.

Whilst Coghlan & Gooch (2011) and Knollenberg et al (2014) make claims regarding transformative learning with regard to volunteer tourism, more research needs to be done to explore its impact on volunteering in work with young people. The transformational possibilities of work with young people are reflected in the work of Freire (1996), whose ideas on dialogue, praxis (action based upon valuing human well-being, truth and respect, underpinned by reflection) and education inform our practice today. There are reasons to be conservative in drawing conclusions about the transformative and emancipatory nature of volunteering in work with young people, particularly when there are strong perceptions that there are a higher proportion of volunteers from low SES backgrounds than in other fields. This is reinforced by the critique of transformative learning made by Kuculaydin and Cranton (2012).

2.5.3 Social Mobility

Social mobility is a complex notion to define but has been expressed as 'the ability of individuals from disadvantaged backgrounds to move up in the world' (Crawford et al., 2011, p.6). Some of the key factors that support social mobility are income, education and occupation (ibid).

Whilst volunteering does not bring income into a household it can develop the employability of the volunteer (Kamerade and Paine, 2014). It has already been argued that volunteering is a learning experience, which facilitates informal learning (Duguid, Mundel and Schugurensky, 2013) but also formal learning opportunities. In work with young people, there was a clear informal to formal learning pathway from induction to practice-related training on issues such as child protection, to NVQs at Level 2 and 3 and the Regional Accreditation and Monitoring Panel (RAMPS) training before that (National Youth Agency, 2007). However, this was before the reduction in funding across the working with young people sector (UK Youth, 2018). The attainment of level 2 and level 3 qualifications by adults aged 19 and over is a key Government indicator of social mobility (The Deputy Prime Minister's Office, 2015) and would also be evidence of developing intellectual capital (Gratton and Ghoshal, 2003).

There has also been a clear professional development route, particularly in progressing towards gaining professional status via the JNC (Joint Negotiating Conditions), the professional qualification for Youth Workers (National Youth Agency, 2007). Prior to 2010, this was awarded at Foundation Degree or Diploma in Higher Education, but since 2010 has needed a BA (Hons). However, as stated previously, the schism between practitioners in the voluntary and statutory sectors has impacted upon the uptake of the professional qualification by practitioners in the voluntary and community sector as it is often seen as the realm of Local Authority workers. This division has been reinforced by changes in recruitment in the sector to reconfigure what would be traditional youth work roles without requiring JNC qualifications and not adopting the JNC terms and conditions (Nicholls, 2012; Unite the Union, 2017).

It is consequently difficult to make a serious case for work with young people making a strong contribution to social mobility through being a catalyst into Higher Education. Local Authority employers traditionally sponsored staff to qualify as professional Youth Workers (The National Youth Agency, 2015b). By 2015, this had mostly stopped in England as training budgets had been cut and Youth Services had been greatly affected (Stanton, 2015). Since 2009 there has been a steady decline in the number of students studying on professionally validated degree programmes in England (The National Youth Agency, 2015a). As more work with young people is delivered by voluntary and community groups and through initiatives such as the NCS their approach to issues of induction, training and professional development should be monitored (Lepper, 2017).

2.6 Volunteering's contribution to society

Volunteering has long been seen as a cure-all for all of life's ills (Baines and Hardill, 2008), whether that be a cure to loneliness in older people (Principi, Chiatti and Lamura, 2012), a way to ensure young people have the skills needed for a lifetime in the workplace (Cemalcilar, 2009) or a way to provide public services (House of Commons, 2011).

As previously stated, there is a growing body of research developing an evidence base for the positive impact that volunteering can have on an individual's well-being (Borgonovi, 2008; Cooper, 2015). To this end the creation of volunteering opportunities and the policy to support it should be valued simply due to the benefits to the individual volunteer. However, the fact that it also benefits society in so many ways makes it even more important to develop our understanding of the factors which motivate and demotivate volunteers.

The value of volunteering to society can be measured in a number of concrete ways. In 2012 the Office for National Statistics estimated that the annual value of regular formal volunteering in the United Kingdom (UK) was £23.9 billion (Office for National Statistics, 2013). This equates to 1.5% of the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Previously, Volunteering England had estimated the annual 'value' of the contribution from all formal and informal volunteers as being £45.1 billion (Institute for Volunteering Research, 2014). Figures published by The Department of Work and Pensions (DWP) and the Cabinet Office estimate that 'wellbeing value to frequent formal volunteers themselves is around £70 billion per year' (ibid). With such financial rewards at stake, it is no wonder that volunteering has become such a focus for policy makers.

2.6.1 Social Policy

The promotion of volunteering has been a priority for successive Governments since the 1990s (Rochester, Howlett and Ellis Paine, 2010; Dean, 2016) perhaps because 'volunteering is often presented as a panacea for a wide range (of) social and political problems including worklessness and a lack of participation in political processes' (Baines and Hardill, 2008, p.315). However, any current social and educational research must be considered against the conditions of the post-banking crisis austerity measures in state-sponsored services (Smith, 2013).

The Coalition Government had two major initiatives which related to work with young people: *Positive for Youth* (H M Government, 2011) and *The Big Society Agenda* (2010). The *Big Society Agenda* maintained that public expenditure undermines volunteering (Bartels, Cozzi and Mantovan, 2013) and it is argued that if the state heavily intervenes, for example by funding all services to capacity, then volunteers are 'crowded out' by the state as they are neither wanted by organisations nor have the drive to volunteer.

Despite Government belief in the crowding out theory, Bartels et al's (2013) research suggests an alternative relationship. Their results found volunteering activity is directly related to the amount of government intervention: when government intervention declines, volunteering declines. They argue that in order for volunteering to be sustained, a collaborative approach is needed (ibid). This is due to the fact that when there is strong infrastructure in place people felt that they were contributing to something that was worthwhile, something that was likely to continue and that they were adding value to. What Bartels et al's (2013) research suggests is that there is an element of 'collaborative advantage' (Huxham and Vangen, 2005, p.53) perceived in this approach. It is important to note though, that Hackl et al (2010) found that research showed that crowding out depended upon the volume of public social expenditure.

As previously stated, Wilson & Musick (1998) argue that individuals need high levels of human capital to successfully volunteer. Therefore, certain societal groups find themselves in complex positions in that the people who most need community action and grass roots volunteering do not have the capacity to develop their own services as they do not have the capitals that are needed to do so. It also potentially means that the communities which had been identified with some level of need by local authorities and relevant organisations and were in receipt of the most support are not only very likely to lose these facilities but also have community members that are least able or motivated to re-establish these services i.e. set up youth projects to fill the gap (Dean, 2016).

The NCS is the current Government's flagship youth programme in England, launched by the Coalition Government in 2011 as part of their *Big Society* agenda (House of Commons Committee of Public Accounts, 2017). The NCS is a 5-phase programme aimed at promoting social cohesion, social engagement and social mobility, with volunteering and social action being features of the programme:

> **Phase 1:** Adventure: this phase involves a residential including exciting activities;
>
> **Phase 2:** Discovery: this phase is aimed at developing individuals' confidence, leadership and communication skills;
>
> **Phases 3 & 4:** Social Action: during these phases, participants deliver a social action project;
>
> **Phase 5:** Graduation.
>
> The summer programme lasts 4 weeks with participants spending 5 days at the residential in Phase 1 in the summer programme and 3 days in the shorter spring and autumn programmes. (National Citizen Service, 2018, n.p.)

The NCS aims to encourage a lifetime of volunteering in the young people who participate yet there are a number of issues with this. Firstly, NCS is not an uncontroversial programme (House of Commons Education Committee, 2011; National Audit Office, 2017) and according to research published in 2017 it has no impact on young people's volunteering behaviour in the long-term (Cameron *et al.*, 2017). It can therefore cannot be said to create a culture (Thompson, 2012) of volunteering.

A Public Accounts Committee report (2017) called into question the sustainability of the NCS as well as highlighting the similarities between the NCS and The Scouts Association (TSA) in relation to the outcomes for young people. However, The Scouting Association, which is also sponsored by The Government, provides places for young people at a much lower price: £550 for a 4 year place in The Scouts compared to £1,863 for a place on the 3 week NCS scheme in 2016 (House of Commons Committee of Public Accounts, 2017). One reason for this is due to the fact that The Scouting Association rely on volunteers to deliver its work with young people (The Scouting Association, 2017).

It appears that the Government's focus on NCS, particularly the prioritisation of its funding (projected to be £1.1 billion by 2020) has impacted upon year-round youth services which have seen their funding reduced by approximately three-quarters, with the total cuts in youth service spending being an estimated £327 million (Unison, 2016) from an estimated £1.2 billion in 2010 (Offord, 2016). One of the strengths of provision which is delivered throughout the year, as opposed to the short-term NCS programme, is firstly, that a far greater number of young people can participate in this provision and secondly, adults can volunteer to support it (Croix, 2017). This is demonstrated by The Scouting Association in their written evidence to the House of Commons Public Accounts Committee in which they also factor in the support that they give to the adult volunteers, providing the cost per young person but also the cost per member of the unit, which inevitably evidences a more cost-effective organisation (2017). Therefore, peculiarly, the Government appears to have established a programme which is in conflict ideologically with the Big Society and which is being out-performed by The Scouts Association which is facilitated by volunteers from the local community (House of Commons Committee of Public Accounts, 2017).

Finally, in work with young people there is a tension between encouraging adults to volunteer and protecting the young people that they would be volunteering with, though this is relevant to work with other vulnerable or potentially vulnerable groups. Therefore, it is important to ensure the appropriateness of a volunteer (Adams, 2012), both in terms of any pertinent previous convictions but also in relation to their motivations to volunteer which might not be criminal but might be unethical (Sapin, 2013a). When developing social policy, such as the *Big Society Agenda* (The Cabinet Office, 2010), where the aim is for volunteers to provide services which were traditionally provided by The Government (Bales, 1996) these factors need to be considered.

2.6.2 Institutional theory

Institutional theory contends that social institutions, such as governments and their administrative organisations, regulate human behaviour through the rules that enable the social institutions to function (Rotolo and Wilson, 2011, p.455). This theory contends that volunteerism is not just dependent upon the characteristics or motivations of those involved but the structural environment i.e. volunteers need the organisations, in the domains in which they want to volunteer, in their locality in order to be able to volunteer. This is supported by Thompson's PCS Analysis (2012) which was discussed in section 2.4.

Therefore, without a Government policy landscape that supports and nurtures the organisations in which people can formally volunteer, people will be unable to do so. This, again, challenges some of the assumptions which underpin The Governments *Big Society Agenda* (The Cabinet Office, 2010) or at least highlights the need for a more dynamic strategy, underpinned by economic support, to ensure a vibrant third and not-for profit sector. In fact, this was something that The Coalition Government recognised in the plan to recruit and train 5,000 Community Organisers (House of Commons, 2011).

However, it is not just in these sectors that voluntary work with young people has traditionally taken place. Local Authority Youth Services were a place where volunteering opportunities were developed, and individuals, communities and groups were fostered. With the cuts in youth services around the country (Unison, 2014) these opportunities have declined (Unison, 2016; UK Youth, 2018). As stated previously, there has been an historical tension between the statutory and voluntary youth sectors (Davies, 1999) which has impacted upon the youth work undertaken and therefore the nature of the voluntary experience. Therefore, 'a complete understanding of the volunteer experience also must consider characteristics of the organization and the interaction of the individual with the organization' (Finkelstien, 2009, p.654). These theories will be explored in relation to this research in Chapter 5.

2.6.3 Creating a volunteer culture

Youth and community development work has historically had a role in developing capacity in our communities (Sapin, 2013a) utilising methods such as positive deviance (Pascale, Sternin and Sternin, 2010) to identify individuals or groups who are already volunteering in order to positively influence others. Work with young people is often aligned directly to the principles of youth and community development work or practitioners work together within an organisation or community. To invest in work with young people is to invest in projects which enable volunteering. As has been argued already, when this investment takes the form of professionally qualified practitioners 'the training, processes and oversight that (are) in place to ensure the safety and protection of beneficiaries' increases (UK Youth, 2018, p. 11).

Research shows that being asked by a friend, colleague or family member to join them in their volunteering is a strong initial driver for volunteering (Carpenter and Myers, 2010; Paik and Navarre-Jackson, 2010) as is volunteer proximity (Paik and Navarre-Jackson, 2010; Nesbit, 2012), having volunteers in your social network. Therefore, it is important to have a vibrant volunteering culture in the present to ensure the opportunities to volunteer and engage future volunteers.

Volunteers who work with young people model volunteering behaviour to the young people that they work with, which has the potential to inspire them to volunteer both now and in the future (H M Government, 2011). Similarly, these volunteers can influence and inspire other adults in their network to volunteer too. The challenge is to reach prospective volunteers from beyond our social networks as volunteer proximity (Paik and Navarre-Jackson, 2010; Nesbit, 2012), is potentially another form of cultural reproduction (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1990) and risks creating an ideological and social echo chamber. Furthermore, it fails to reach those who are not currently volunteering and therefore over relies on and over burdens our current volunteer workforce.

2.7 Conclusion

Volunteering is hugely important to the history and development as well as the ongoing delivery of work with young people. If this work is to continue into the future, research is needed to develop our understanding of what motivates those who currently volunteer in this field in order to maintain their involvement.

It may also be possible to strengthen the status of this work and evidence a social mission which extends beyond the young people engaged with and into their broader communities by recognising and researching the value of volunteering in work with young people for adults (Cemalcilar, 2009). This can be done by developing our understanding of the benefits of volunteering in work with young people for those adults who participate. There is a lack of published research on what motivates adults to volunteer in work with young people in England. Therefore, research is needed to investigate this topic further. Consequently, the aim of my research is to answer three questions:

1. What motivates adults to volunteer to work with young people in England?
2. What are the benefits to the volunteer from participating in work with young people in England? What are the ways in which people learn and develop different types of capital from their volunteering and is this different depending upon an individuals' identity characteristics?
3. What factors motivate and demotivate adults from continuing to volunteer in working with young people in England and which of the demotivating factors might we be able to mitigate against?

This chapter has outlined the literature searching strategy and presented current data on volunteering in England. It has explored the current literature regarding volunteering, including volunteer motivations, the benefits of volunteering to the volunteer and society, volunteering as learning and the role of work with young people and Government policy in contributing to a volunteering culture.

The next chapter will summarise and explore the research methodology utilised including the research methods, research design and the ethical implications of the research.

3. Methodology

The previous chapter critically examined the literature that was reviewed as part of this study and how this supported the identification of three research questions:

1. What motivates adults to volunteer to work with young people in England?
2. What are the benefits to the volunteer from participating in work with young people in England? What are the ways in which people learn and develop different types of capital from their volunteering and is this different depending upon an individuals' identity characteristics?
3. What factors motivate and demotivate adults from continuing to volunteer in working with young people in England?

This chapter will summarise and explore the research methodology including the research approach, design and methods adopted, and the ethical implications of this research.

3.1 Educational Research

What constitutes valid research in education is open to debate (Hammersley, 2007). Hargreaves (2007) argues that there is a disconnect between educational researchers, often situated in universities, and educational practitioners. Bassey (2007) claims that educational practitioners, in researching their practice, often adopt qualitative methodologies whereas the dominant view amongst policy makers and funders is that a positivist paradigm is more legitimate than an interpretivist one. A lack of a generally agreed and accepted definition of educational research (Bassey, 2007) makes it difficult to place this research, which is concerned with informal learning rather than formal education, firmly within the educational research debates.

Social research, of which educational research is part, is varied and diverse in nature (Sarantakos, 2013). As such, a range of methods and methodologies can be utilised as appropriate to the research project (Thomson and Walker, 2010). As this research is concerned with the social activity of volunteering with young people through an organisation, and the learning that takes place in groups, it can therefore be said to be concerned with the sociology of this form of education (Brooks, 2019). It is therefore fitting to draw upon theoretical frameworks within social research, as appropriate.

3.2 Research Approach

A research approach describes more than just the methods used but defines the world view of the researcher and how they perceive the world that they are researching (Thomas, 2017). It takes into account but also informs the epistemology, ontology, paradigm and methodology of the research and the theoretical frameworks adopted (Thomas, 2017). Therefore, it follows that the research approach should describe the iterative nature of social research and the processes through which the researcher has developed their research.

<table>
<tr><td colspan="5">Paradigm – Critical Theory: seeks to emphasise the role of power differentials in educational activity and society in general</td></tr>
<tr><td>Ontology: Socio-Constructivist</td><td>Epistemology: Interpretivist</td><td rowspan="2">Methodology: Exploratory</td><td colspan="2">Research Approach: Mixed methods</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Learners are not passive; Volunteers are agentive</td><td rowspan="2">We construct our own social reality</td><td>Individual experiences and motivations: VFI</td><td>Group understanding and meaning making: Focus Groups</td></tr>
<tr><td>Analysis:</td><td>Statistical methods used to analyse Likert responses
Thematic analysis of open questions</td><td>Themes identified by groups

Thematic analysis of transcripts</td></tr>
</table>

Figure 3-1: The research approach for this study (Twining *et al.*, 2017)

3.2.1 Paradigm

A paradigm can be defined as a world view or a conceptual framework (Oliver, 2010). It defines what is important and what is considered valid in a research topic (Sarantakos, 2013). There is a disparity between the taxonomies presented in the literature, for example Burgess et al (2006) identify five paradigms in educational research: positivism; post-positivism; interpretivism; critical/constructivist (feminist) and postmodernism whereas Sarantakos (2013) identifies positivism, symbolic interactionism, ethno-methodology and phenomenology as examples of a paradigm.

As can be seen from the review of the literature in Chapter 2, this research is being framed within the context of relevant social policy and the practice of volunteering with the aim to understand these practices, what informs them and to identify issues and barriers. As such, whilst the research questions aim to discover what motivates adults to volunteer in work with young people it implicitly also aims to discover what demotivates them. Therefore, it can be said to be concerned with exploring differences in experience and opportunity and identifying what can be done to address them. Consequently, this research has adopted a critical theory paradigm.

3.2.2 Ontology

Ontology is defined as addressing 'questions about what things are and their being-in-the-world' (Potter, 2006, p. 79). Sarantakos (2013) states that there are two main ontologies: realist and constructionist. A realist ontology, sometimes also referred to as objectivist, conceptualises the world as being tangible, fixed and straightforward (Sarantakos, 2013) and is generally associated with the positivist paradigm and a quantitative methodology.

This research is underpinned by a socio-constructivist ontology as it aims to explore adults' motivation to volunteer and the learning experiences that they have participating in volunteering activities (Duguid, Mundel and Schugurensky, 2013) and through joining a community of practice (Wenger, 1998) in work with young people. Within a critical paradigm, ontologically speaking, our reality, and therefore our interpretation of our reality, is shaped by social, political and cultural values and thus critical theory 'makes possible the concrete analysis of structure and of contingently staged social action' (Morrow and Brown, 1994).

3.2.3 Epistemology

A researcher's epistemology is informed by how they think they can know about what there is to study (Thomas, 2017). By adopting a socio-constructivist ontology, an interpretivist epistemology is inevitable (Sarantakos, 2013). Interpretivism aims to understand and illuminate how people interpret, make meaning of, and what they think is significant in their social worlds (Bradford and Cullen, 2012). This research aimed to explore what meaning volunteers gave to their work with young people. It aimed to explore why they had originally decided to volunteer and what factors they felt had been important in keeping them motivated or in influencing them to decide to stop volunteering. An epistemology within a critical theory paradigm identifies that knowledge is not defined as facts as such, but by how individuals experience, in this case volunteering, through lenses such as society, politics, gender and ethnicity (Gray, 2009).

3.2.4 Methodology

A researcher's methodology is their design for how they will find the information that they are looking for (Thomas, 2017). It refers to the principles, practices and procedures underpinning a research project rather than the methods of research (Bradford and Cullen, 2012).

Each ontology and epistemology have their strengths and lend themselves to certain types of research methodology and research questions (Sarantakos, 2013). A quantitative methodology is traditionally utilised in research where a precise measurement is identified as a possible and desirable outcome (Oliver, 2010), which in work with young people might be service evaluation or needs assessment (Bradford and Cullen, 2012). A qualitative methodology may be employed when the research aims to interpret and understand people's thoughts, opinions and experiences or when researchers want to explore a subject in more depth. For example, if the researcher's aim is to advance young people's voice over fulfilling audit responsibilities then a qualitative methodology might be more appropriate than a quantitative one to evaluate a service with young people (Bradford and Cullen, 2012).

Whilst these two methodologies have been presented in a polarised manner in reality researchers, particularly in social and educational research, may use quantitative and qualitative tools to gather data (Sarantakos, 2013). This is known as a mixed-methods or multi-strategy approach (Burgess et al., 2006): an exploratory mixed-methods approach has been utilised in this research as, whilst there is a growing body of research in to volunteer motivations, there is no research into volunteering motivations of adults in work with young people in England (Sarantakos, 2013).

3.2.5 Insider Research

My position on this continuum changes depending upon the lens through which you view my involvement in the field. As an academic, I may be considered an outsider researcher looking in to the field of work with young people (Burgess et al., 2006). On the other hand, as a professional in the field of work with young people and as an individual who has volunteered in this field for many years, I may be considered an insider researcher (Burgess et al., 2006). However, as Hellawell (2006, p.487) contends that 'ideally the researcher should be both inside *and* outside the perceptions of the researched' my position to that being researched is appropriate for this study.

This issue was considered when identifying an appropriate research approach. My own experiences working as a volunteer and engaging and supporting volunteers motivated me to identify the topic for my study. This experience has led me to identify some key factors which motivate people to volunteer in work with young people and had led me to identify a critical perspective on the subject. However, due to the lack of research in the area, as identified in my literature review, and in acknowledgement of my own critical perspectives, I have adopted an exploratory methodology and participative approach in order to minimise, in so far as this is possible, my own bias in support of volunteering in work with young people and enable me to explore others' perspectives and experiences and allow these to illuminate my own practices rather than the other way round.

Whilst mixed-method approaches adopt both qualitative and quantitative methodologies (Sarantakos, 2013), an exploratory approach is not usually aligned with a critical theory paradigm which seeks to emphasise the role of power differentials in educational activity and society in general (Gage, 2007). Nonetheless, this is the overall approach of this research. Whilst differences are assumed, what those differences might be is not and so it is important to minimise the impact of any bias, unconscious or not, on behalf of the researcher (Burgess, Sieminski and Arthur, 2006). In doing so this research aims to not just explore and illuminate the topic being examined whilst affecting it as little as is possible, but it also seeks to be a catalyst for identifying ways to promote change (Oliver, 2010), which is an important facet of an EdD. The adoption of this research approach is underpinned by a commitment to reflexivity (Finlay, 2006).

3.3 Research Design

A research design outlines the strategy for undertaking and addressing the different aspects of the project in a coherent and consistent manner (Thomas, 2017). Furthermore, it should articulate how it has been informed by the research questions being asked.

3.3.1 Mixed-methods

In this research, a mixed-methods or multi-strategy (Burgess et al., 2006) approach was adopted. Figure 3-2 represents the process of integrating the quantitative and qualitative elements of this research. The decision to undertake a mixed-methods approach was informed by the literature discussed in Chapter 2. The way in which the literature review informed the choice of research instruments utilised is discussed in sections 3.3.2 and 3.3.3 of this chapter.

Informed by the literature and the interpretivist epistemology of this research, an online survey, the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) was administered and four focus groups were facilitated. This approach was implemented despite the fact that many researchers who study volunteer motivation, whose work is discussed in Chapter 2, rely solely on administering surveys to large groups (Stukas et al., 1999; Dávila & Díaz-Morales, 2009) in particularly Clary *et al* (1998) whose Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) was utilised in this research.

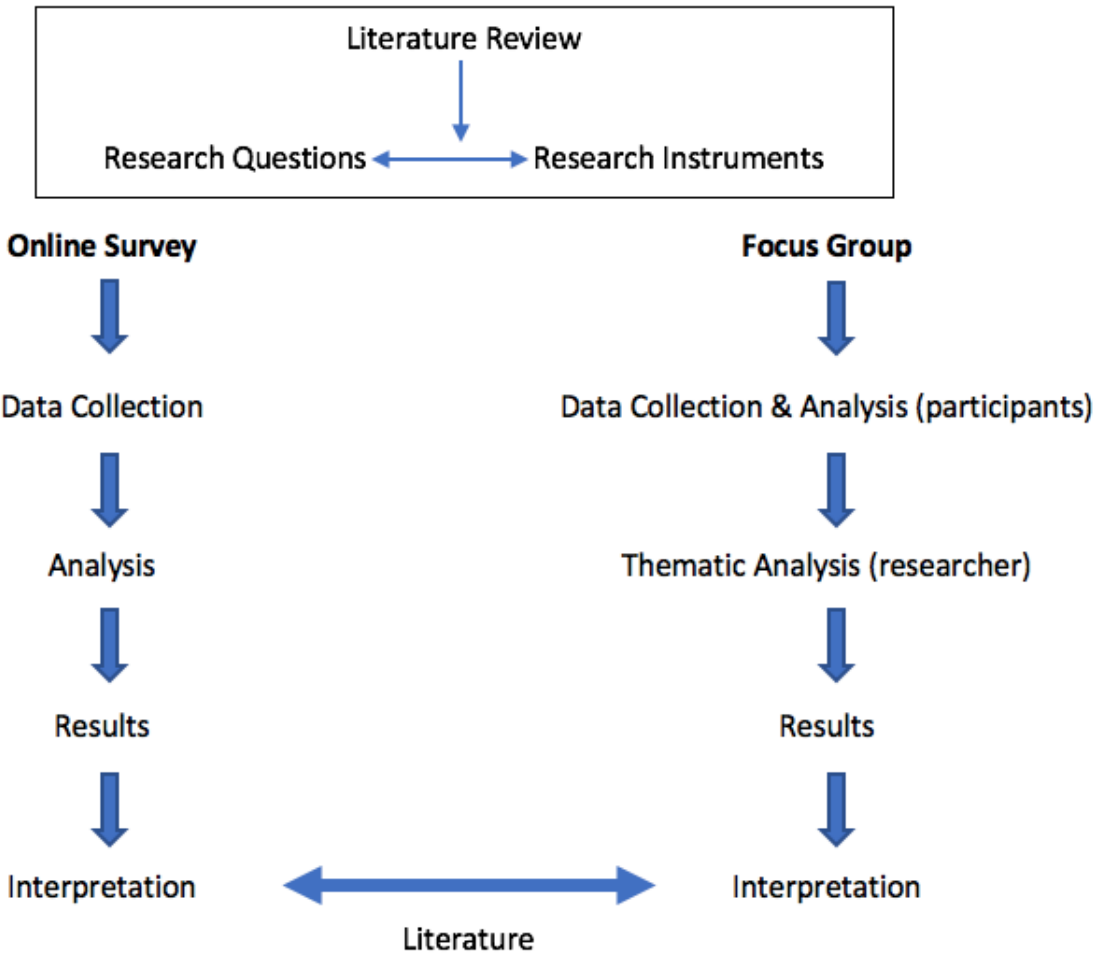

Figure 3-2: The mixed-methods integration for this study (Turnbull and Lathlean, 2015)

Surveys can be used to collect quantitative and qualitative data and can be used to gather a large amount of information in a relatively short period of time (Sarantakos, 2013). With the development of online surveys, administered through sites such as SurveyMonkey, they can be distributed, returned and the data collated inexpensively. This process can be less time-consuming and therefore more convenient for both researcher and respondent (Sarantakos, 2013), addressing issues traditionally associated with surveys such as increasing accuracy as participants complete their survey directly rather than the researcher having to input the data from each respondent into a spreadsheet. Employing online surveys also enables the researcher to potentially gain information from a broader sample of respondents than is in their own network, via snowball sampling (Thomas, 2017). This is useful in exploratory research because it gives the researcher a broad set of data to examine.

The facilitation of focus groups was added to the research approach as, whilst the online survey would capture individuals' reasons for volunteering and the outcomes people identified that were possible through volunteering in work with young people, it would not capture the socially constructed way in which people learn through volunteering (Duguid, Mundel and Schugurensky, 2013). Therefore, focus groups were also facilitated with individuals who have volunteered, currently volunteer or might volunteer with young people in the future in order to explore volunteers' experiences of the field more fully.

3.3.2 Online surveys

There are a range of different types of 'motivation' identified by researchers within the field, as discussed in Chapter 2. These can be divided into functional and attitudinal (The Fetzer Institute, 1998). Some of the studies in these areas have developed research tools in order to effectively collect their data, some of which have been used on multiple occasions by multiple researchers. There were 8 surveys measuring attitudinal motivations at the point this research was undertaken. These are:

1) the Attitudes toward Helping Others scale (AHO) (Webb, Green and Brashear, 1992; Nickell, 1998; Krueger, Hicks and McGue, 2001; Bekkers, 2007);
2) the Helping Attitudes Scale (Nickell, 1998; Cremer and Van Lange, 2001; Bekkers, 2007; Reizer and Mikulincer, 2007);
3) the Attitudes towards Charitable Giving Scale (Furnham, 1995; Bègue, 2002; Bennett, 2003; Sargeant and Woodliffe, 2007);
4) the Bales Volunteerism-Activism Scale (Bales, 1996; Uggen & Janikula, 1999; Hall et al., 2004; Dolnicar & Randle, 2007);
5) the Helping Power Motivation Scale (Nickell, 1998; Frieze and Boneva, 2001; Rusbult and Van Lange, 2003; Van Dijke and Poppe, 2006);
6) the Attitudes towards Charitable Organisations (ACO) (Webb, Green and Brashear, 1992; Krueger, Hicks and McGue, 2001; Weber *et al.*, 2004);
7) the Charity Values Scale (Webb, Green and Brashear, 1992; Bennett, 2003; Kottasz, 2004; Sargeant and Woodliffe, 2007);
8) the Philanthropy Scale (Polonsky, Shelley and Voola, 2002; Bekkers, 2005, 2007; Schuyt, Smit and Bekkers, 2013).

By grouping these articles based upon the research tool used The Fetzer Institute (1998) has illustrated how interrelated research is in this field. Whilst the above studies are interesting, their research tools are not appropriate for my research as they are concerned with, for example, giving money, not time (to causes) or about giving money, not time (to organisations).

There is only one group of research which adopts a functional approach. These studies all adopt the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Clary et al., 1998; Penner, 2002; Stukas et al., 1999). The VFI was chosen for this study over other tools, such as Bales Volunteerism-Activism Scale (1996), due to the rigorous way in which it was developed (Clary et al., 1998), particularly in reference to validity and reliability. It was also adopted because their research examines 'the role of motivation in the processes of volunteerism, especially decisions about becoming a volunteer in the first place and decisions about continuing to volunteer' (Clary & Snyder, 1999, pp.157–158) which is the focus of my study. The authors' permission to utilise the tool was sought and received.

Volunteer Functions Inventory

The VFI explores 6 functions of volunteering: Values, Understanding, Enhancement, Career, Social and Protective (Clary *et al.*, 1998) as well as how satisfied volunteers are with their volunteering. The volunteerism questionnaire asks participants to mark on a 7-point Likert scale their response to a series of questions. The questionnaire has three parts. Firstly, it asks participants to answer 30 questions about the reasons that they volunteer with the organisation to indicate how important each reason is to them. Secondly, participants are asked to answer 18 questions regarding whether they had experienced various outcomes from their volunteering. Finally, participants are asked to respond to 6 questions related to their satisfaction with their volunteering.

There were four minor additions and amendments made to the VFI in this study. Firstly, the participant data was not included in the journal articles and examples of the tool found. In order to compare and contrast the data sets, it seemed appropriate to collect the same data for participant identity and demography information as in the Community Life Survey 2014-15 (The Cabinet Office, 2014b). This enables a comparison of the results from volunteers in work with young people with those in England more generally. Secondly, the focus on a specific organisation was removed from the first set of questions as the participants were not all based in one setting and some respondents did not currently volunteer and the language was changed to place the focus on 'work with young people'. Thirdly, the tense of the VFI was changed in part two to include both current and ex-volunteers. Finally, an 'open comments' box was added under each question to allow respondents to add any reflections or clarifications they wished to make and a final question was added to allow participants to tell me about any aspect of their volunteering experience in work with young people that they had not been asked about but would like to share.

The VFI was distributed to prospective participants online via SurveyMonkey. As stated above, this was appropriate for my study as it enabled me to access respondents throughout England and to recruit participants beyond my own professional network.

3.3.3 Focus Groups

Focus groups are predominantly used to gain qualitative data and are particularly suitable to exploratory research (Menter *et al.*, 2011) as they enable participants to discuss the topic being explored, discuss their own experiences and draw conclusions. It is therefore an appropriate method of data collection for my research given that I have adopted an exploratory methodology. They are also well suited to work with young people which has a strong tradition of group work practice (Ord, 2012). Therefore, participants are likely to be more at ease and comfortable participating in a focus group rather than individual semi-structured interviews, for example. Moreover, group exploration and discussion of the motivational factors and barriers to volunteering in work with young people is aligned to the social constructivist ontology (Table 3.1) underpinning my research. It is through group discussion and negotiation that volunteering in work with young people will be explored by participants and conclusions drawn.

The focus groups were facilitated using a meta-planning approach (Matheson and Matheson, 2009). This approach allows each participant to identify their own responses to questions set by the researcher by writing on post-it notes. These responses are sorted into themes, which are named by the group and then ranked in importance in relation to the question being asked. There is then space for the group to reflect upon the question and their responses in relation to their own experiences.

3.3.4 Initial Study

This research builds upon a successful initial study undertaken in 2015. In this initial study the instruments utilised in the main study were piloted.

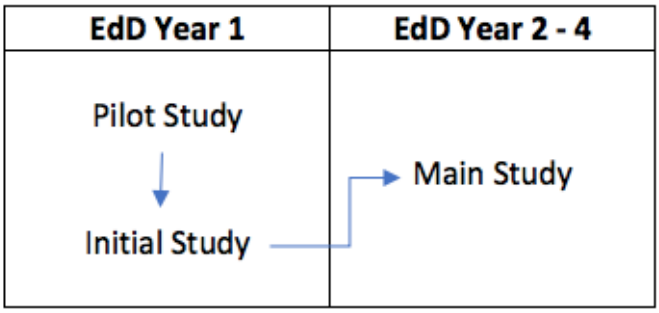

Figure 3-3: The OU EdD Programme structure

Participants in the initial study were purposively sampled (Sarantakos, 2013) as a certain group of people with a specific background of experience in volunteering in work with young people were needed to participate and comment on the usefulness of my findings to inform my main study. Therefore, for my initial study, I identified appropriate people by contacting specific professionals within the field.

These individuals were identified as being appropriate for two main reasons. Firstly, the place of the organisation they work for within the field; a range of organisations and strategic contributors were needed across the statutory and voluntary sectors. Secondly, the individual was engaged in volunteering in work with young people in England. Individuals within the following organisations were invited to participate in the online survey: UK Youth, NCVYS, the NYA, Girl Guiding UK, Young People of the Year (YOPEY), LEAP Confronting Conflict and the YMCA. Four individuals with a range of experience of volunteering in work with young people were also invited to participate in a focus group.

All those who participated in any part of the initial study were asked for their feedback on the process, questions and findings to ascertain how appropriate the study was and to gauge how useful the data would be to the field. One comment regarding the online survey was that some of the questions were not appropriate to work with young people due to the fact that they asked respondents the extent to which they agreed with statements such as 'volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems'. Whilst this is an important observation, all the VFI questions were retained in the main study for two reasons. Firstly, in order to be able to compare the findings in this research with others that use the VFI and secondly, as it was important to ascertain what others thought about these questions.

3.3.5 Ethical Implications

Ethical rigour is vital within research (Sarantakos, 2013). Due consideration must be taken prior to conducting any research project to avoid any harm to participants and to ensuring their ongoing wellbeing throughout the research and in the dissemination of findings (Burgess, Sieminski and Arthur, 2006). Issues such as informed consent as well as participants' rights to withdraw need to be considered (Sarantakos, 2013). Drawing upon the work of Seedhouse (1998) and Flinders (1992), Stutchbury and Fox (2009) have developed a methodological tool for effective ethical analysis. This tool was completed (appendix six) in order to address the ethical issues within this research but also to ensure its ongoing integrity.

Ethical approval for this study was applied for and given by the Open University Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC). Informed consent, as required by The Open University's research and ethical guidance was ensured by developing and sharing a communication outlining the aim of my research, as per the Participant Information Sheet (appendix one). This was sent to prospective respondents to the VFI, including a link to the online survey. This was followed up with further particulars upon request. On opening the online survey, respondents were reminded of the aims of my research and their rights to withdraw from the study (The Open University, 2020b). All participants in the focus group were given a Participant Information Sheet (appendix one) and asked to complete an Informed Consent Form (appendix two) and a Participant Data Sheet (appendix three) which collected the same data as the VFI so that the data could be compared across groups. All the data collected in this research was kept securely in a lockable filing cabinet or via SurveyMonkey which has industry standard data security as per The Open University's research and ethical guidance (The Open University, 2020a).

Research design is informed by the research questions being asked (Thomas, 2017). I have identified an exploratory position (Sarantakos, 2013) for my research as so little research has been undertaken in this area and my research aims to explore and develop our understanding of adults motivation to volunteer in work with young people and the learning that it facilitates. For example, in the focus group, I aimed to explore volunteers' perspectives and attitudes, and allow participants to inform the analysis of their responses. This approach is congruent with both Stukas et al's (1999) belief in the dominance of volunteers' agendas in their motivation to continue to volunteer and the participatory values and nature of work with young people (National Youth Agency, 2004). This may be undermined if this research was approached from a purely critical perspective which starts from the position that there are inequalities (Burgess et al., 2006), in this case, in opportunity to access appropriate volunteering opportunities, as this may not have been participants' experience.

Individuals could refuse to answer any of the questions in the online survey should they wish, and the topics being discussed in the focus group meant that the likelihood of disclosure during the process was minimal. Pseudonyms have been used throughout this thesis to further protect individuals' identity.

3.3.6 Participants

Eligible participants for both the online survey and focus groups were adults aged 18 years and over, who had or were currently volunteering in any form of work with young people in England. The work with young people being considered is any informal or non-formal work including youth work, uniformed organisations and identity or community-based work. Focus group 4 included adult volunteers who volunteered in an 'early years' setting and who might consider volunteering to work with young people in the future.

Participants for the online survey were initially purposively sampled (Sarantakos, 2013) from my professional contacts and networks if they were volunteers themselves in work with young people or had contact with those that did. Participants were invited to join the study via email, social media and various professional networking sites with an outline of the purpose of my research and a link to the online survey on SurveyMonkey included in the communication. A snowball sampling approach (Thomas, 2017) was then adopted as they were all asked not only to complete the survey if they considered themselves suitable, but also to pass on the details of the survey to any volunteers that they knew.

Participants for the focus groups were recruited using a cluster-sampling method (ibid). Appropriate sites, single volunteer organisations being identified as a sampling unit, were identified to represent a range of volunteering opportunities:

- Volunteer organisation working with a targeted or identity group in a city;
- Local authority providing volunteering opportunities in a small town;
- Faith-based organisation in an area of deprivation in a market town.

The data collected from the focus group who participated in my initial study was included as the focus group schedule did not change in the main study. This group had all volunteered in different settings and so brought with them a range of experiences in different settings.

This type of sampling highlights the issue of my position as either an insider or outsider researcher as I utilised my networks and contacts within the field to identify and approach potential participants.

3.3.7 Limitations

There are a number of limitations to my research methodology. Firstly, whilst utilising an online survey might be seen as positive for some respondents, making the process much easier and quicker, for others this may be a barrier (Menter et al., 2011). One of the assumptions made by professionals within the field being explored is the idea that volunteers in work with young people come from a range of backgrounds, often reflecting those of the young people with whom they are volunteering. If this is the case, a sufficiently high level of information or general literacy cannot be assumed. A lower level of information literacy, together with perceptions that some volunteers may have of themselves of not having a valuable opinion, may impact upon their willingness to participate in my research. However, the VFI (Clary et al. 1998) uses a Likert Scale (Sarantakos, 2013) which means that, unless participants wish to write something in the comments section, they only need to tick the box which corresponds to their response thus minimising the need for writing.

A criticism of the validity of a Likert Scale in measuring motivation is that it can be compromised due to social desirability, the tendency of respondents to answer questions in a way which makes them look good rather than answering truthfully (Musick and Wilson, 2008). This may be less likely if a survey is administered online as the respondent can choose to complete it anonymously and also being online may give the respondent a greater sense of anonymity (Sappleton, 2013). Previous studies which have utilised the VFI have not found any correlations to social desirability (Houle, Sagarin and Kaplan, 2005). However, possible participants may also be discouraged from participating in the online survey due to a lack of online literacy skills or digital poverty (Loader and Keeble, 2004).

Snow-ball sampling (Sarantakos, 2013) is another limitation of my research as the purposively sampled individuals act as gate-keepers to other volunteers (Sundeen, Raskoff and Garcia, 2007). Using this form of accessing potential participants may stop relevant people being contacted but also, depending on individuals' definition of work with young people, may cause non-eligible participants to be recruited. Their responses are easily removed if this was the case.

This form of sampling had further implications in this research as some of the organisations contacted appear not to have forwarded the survey to their volunteers, or at least their volunteers did not appear as a well-defined cohort within the survey respondents. This was noticeable as one organisation, whose volunteers reported a very strong affinity to the organisation that they volunteered with, did represent as a clear cohort. These individuals constituted 33.6% (n=48) of all participants in this research, although 7 of these participants (5.2%) reported volunteering for other organisations as well. This was disappointing as I had involved the same national organisations who are involved in work with young people, both policy and practice, in my initial study. I had asked for their feedback on my research questions and approach to establish whether my research would be to the field. It was hoped that this would secure backing from these organisations when it came to the main study, but this does not seem to have been the case.

A further limitation of the method of sampling chosen for this research is the self-selecting nature of this approach. Whilst it would be unethical to coerce or force participation, it felt appropriate to adopt an open, voluntary sampling method to recruit participants into a research project exploring volunteering. However, this inevitably creates issues of self-selecting bias (Lavrakas, 2008) which may lead to participants not being representative of the population being studied or possibly amplifying an aspect of the study, in this case the distance that volunteers were willing to travel (which is discussed in section 4.1.9 below). However, as Thomas states, 'a purposive sample, which involves simply the pursuit of the kind of person in whom the researcher is interested, professes no representativeness' (2017, p. 142).

The main limitation of adopting a focus group approach is the logistical issues of getting a minimum number of eligible volunteers in the room at the same time. This was addressed by identifying cases for the research based upon the nature of the organisation providing the volunteering. This enabled volunteers to be brought together at a venue that they were used to working at and were comfortable in. This had a secondary positive outcome by supporting participants to be relaxed as they participated in the group discussions. Finally, it mitigated against excluding participants with limited mobility or wheelchair users as the space in which they regularly volunteer must be appropriate for their use. This is a factor which particularly needed to be considered as the meta-planning approach has participants moving around the room.

A consideration when adopting the meta-planning approach (Matheson and Matheson, 2009) adopted for the focus groups was the possibility of individuals with literacy issues being discouraged from participating, as they were expected to write in front of others. However, as focus group members all volunteered together and post-it notes could consist of one-word answers or images, such as a clock face to represent time, this barrier has been mitigated as much as possible.

There are other weaknesses identified in using focus groups more generally. These include but are not limited to certain individuals being over-bearing and taking over the session versus others not participating at all, as well as the challenges of recording the process (Burgess et al., 2006). The metaplanning approach facilitated in the focus groups reduces the impact of these apparent weaknesses. Meta-planning (Matheson & Matheson, 2009) adopts a participatory approach to focus groups which enables participants to identify their own answers to questions by individually writing them down on post-it notes before sharing and discussing their answers. This enables everyone to identify their own opinions before sharing them with the group and ensures each participant can get involved. It is therefore more inclusive and reduces power differentials between the group facilitator and group members in other focus group models.

As with any group work, there are inherent issues or weaknesses in the process just by bringing people together. Participants may have a history which they bring to the process over and above the usual challenges inherent in bringing together a group of individuals to undertake a task as identified by Tuckman (Smith, 2005). If the group has come together for the first time, then they may be still in the 'forming' stage and therefore not putting forward their particular views. Alternatively, groups with history may move straight to the 'storming' stage which may threaten to overtake the session. Whilst meta-planning can minimise some of these issues, it cannot reduce them completely.

3.4 Method of analysis

This research employed a mixed-methods approach (Burgess, Sieminski and Arthur, 2006). Turnbull and Lathlean (2015) identify that the integration of the insights collected from the separate research methods is a crucial aspect of effective mixed-methods research. Figure 3-2 above illustrates that within this research project the integration of the two data sets was undertaken after the end of the collection and analysis of the online survey and focus groups data. In analysing the data the methods of analysis adopted in mixed-methods research should be congruent with the approach taken if the instrument was being utilised in a single method study (Sarantakos, 2013). In this research, the survey utilised had already been developed and the findings from which were not being used to inform the development of the focus group research questions. As such, the survey and focus groups were delivered concurrently as opposed to sequentially (Turnbull and Lathlean, 2015). Furthermore, as this research adopted a socio-constructivist ontology, the focus groups thematically analysed their answers using the meta-planning approach discussed in section 3.3.3 (Matheson and Matheson, 2009). Therefore, integration of the findings from each part of the research process was conducted as a stage of interpretation after the results were concluded in order to compare them to identify areas of convergence, divergence and discrepancy (Turnbull and Lathlean, 2015) across the results and in relation to the literature discussed in Chapter 2. The findings of this work are discussed in Chapter 5 and the conclusions are presented in Chapter 6.

3.4.1 Online survey

The online-survey data was analysed using SPSS in relation to the six volunteer functions identified by Clary *et al* (1998); values, understanding, enhancement, career, social and protective. The respondents' answers were grouped according to these six functions and explored in relation to the literature discussed in Chapter 2.

The open comments were examined utilising a theoretical thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The comments were analysed in relation to the VFI themes but also against the literature discussed in Chapter 2.

A series of tests were undertaken to explore the data via SPSS and to assess the internal consistency of the VFI survey. Cronbach's coefficient Alpha test was undertaken (Pallant, 2016) and table 3.2 shows the overall outcome for the survey. According to Pallant (2016) a minimum level of 0.7 is required to evidence the reliability of a scale. A value of 0.914 suggests a very good internal consistency reliability for the scale used.

Table 3-1: Outcomes from the Cronbach's coefficient Alpha test

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
0.914	0.912	48

3.4.2 Focus Groups

The focus groups adopted a meta-planning approach (Matheson & Matheson, 2009) which allows participants to identify the themes in their answers and to prioritise the responses given. This minimises the input of the researcher in the thematic analysis (Sarantakos, 2013) of the participants' answers and allows a more participatory group discussion to inform the final conclusions. The results of the focus group were recorded on flip chart paper, which was photographed, both of which were securely saved.

The focus group discussions were also recorded with the consent of the participants. These recordings were transcribed and explored utilising a theoretical thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The comments and group outputs were analysed in relation to the VFI themes and against the literature discussed in Chapter 2.

3.5 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed and explored the research methodology adopted in this research including the research approach, research design and the ethical considerations of this research. The next chapter will present the research findings including the survey responses and focus group conclusions.

4. Demographics

In this chapter the demographics of the respondents to the online survey and focus group are presented. Their responses to the questions are discussed and analysed according to their identity groups and key trends are highlighted. It is through these characteristics, adopting a lens of intersectionality (Hill Collins and Bilge, 2016), that their motivations for volunteering will be explored further in Chapter 5, which will also compare and critically analyse the motivations, outcomes and barriers experienced by different groups.

4.1 Research participants

The online survey was undertaken by 145 individuals, though 20 responses were omitted from the final analysis because their volunteering was conducted in another country, with very young children, they had answered no questions or there were duplicate responses; in this last case the more complete duplicate response was retained. Of the 125 applicable responses, 103 completed the survey fully with 22 participants either choosing not to answer or skipping some part of the survey.

In total 138 adults participated in this research either by completing the online survey (n=125), participating in one of four focus groups (n=16) or both (n=3). What follows is a critical discussion of the identity characteristics of all participants in this research to explore who volunteers in work with young people in England. The responses to the online survey and discussions of the focus groups are examined in the following chapter.

The data collected during this research cannot be compared directly to that collected during the Community Life Survey as it reports on percentages of the total population as opposed to percentages of respondents. However, broad comparisons can be made between trends seen in the population and patterns identified within the participants of this research. Furthermore, since 2016-17, the survey has been self-completed through an online survey (The Department for Digital Culture Media & Sport, 2018) and so is now conducted in a way more aligned to the online survey in this research.

4.1.1 Sex of research participants

There were more females (n=70, 56%) who participated in the online survey than males (n=54, 43.2%) and one participant who preferred not to answer the question (0.8%). When including the participants in the focus groups there were still more females (n=81, 58.7%) who participated in the research than males (n=56, 40.6%), and two males participated in both as did one female.

Table 4-1: Sex of research participants

Sex	Count	Percent
Male	56	40.6%
Female	81	58.7%
Prefer not to say	1	0.7%
Total	138	100%

The disproportionate number of female participants in this research could be due to the sex of the researcher, but it may also reflect the composition of volunteers within the field. Whilst this is my experience as both a volunteer and supporter of volunteers in work with young people for more than 20 years, as no formal records are kept on volunteers it is impossible to analyse this further. However, as this is so very different to the statistics of general volunteering in formal activities as seen in Table 2.2, which shows that 21% of men and 23% of women volunteered formally at least once a month in 2017-18, there is clearly more to learn about how men and women participate in volunteering in work with young people. Therefore, all the data in this chapter includes the sex of the respondent in order to highlight and explore whether volunteering in work with young people is experienced differently by diverse groups.

The NCVO identify that 'women were considerably more likely to provide caring roles and men more likely to give advice and represent others' (2018b) the former of which would correspond with face to face work with young people whereas the latter might be more aligned to roles such as Trustees. It is therefore important not only to consider why more women than men have participated in this research and whether this represents the field of work with young people more generally but also to explore the nature of the roles that men and women participate in. The report 'Taken on trust: The awareness and effectiveness of charity trustees in England and Wales' (Lee *et al.*, 2017) found that men were more numerous in Trustee roles than women by a ratio of 2:1. However, in this research there was a more even representation in Trustee roles as will be discussed in section 4.1.6.

4.1.2 Age of research participants

There were participants in the research across all relevant age groups apart from those aged over 70 years old. Of the 138 participants in the research, the biggest age group were aged 35-49. This group had the second lowest rate of volunteering monthly in the national survey in 2017/18, with only those aged 25-34 years less likely to volunteer. As discussed in Chapter 2, much work with young people occurs in projects that meet on a weekly basis. Therefore, the rates of volunteering monthly, where respondents were asked about their formal volunteering within the last month, is most relevant to the field. That is not to say that volunteers cannot make a positive contribution to annual events which might be run however, most work with young people relies on developing relationships between adults and those that they are working with (Ingram and Harris, 2013) which needs regular contact time to nurture.

Table 4-2: Age of research participants

Age	Sex	Count	Percent
16-19	Male	7	5.1%
	Female	15	10.9%
	Total	22	15.9%
25-29	Male	10	7.2%
	Female	15	10.9%
	Prefer not to say	1	0.7%
	Total	26	18.8%
35-49	Male	19	13.8%
	Female	34	24.6%
	Total	53	38.4%
50-64	Male	18	13.0%
	Female	16	11.6%
	Total	34	24.6%
65-69	Male	2	1.4%
	Female	1	0.7%
	Total	3	2.2%
Total	Male	56	40.6%
	Female	81	58.7%
	Prefer not to say	1	0.7%
	Total	138	100.0%

Those aged 35 to 49 might also be more likely than other age groups to have children within the age groups covered by work with young people. As will be explored in section 4.1.8, many of the participants involved in this research project were recruited as a result of volunteer proximity (Paik and Navarre-Jackson, 2010; Nesbit, 2012) for example being asked, or seeing a vacancy, to support the project. Therefore, it may not be that adults in this age group have more time, or are more altruistic (Andreoni, 1990) or pro-social (Carlo *et al.*, 2005) but rather they are motivated to maintain or retain services for their children or young people in their communities. In response to Q2. 'my friends volunteer', one survey respondent replied, 'a lot don't have the time but the ones that do it's a direct result of children or space in their role like food bank etc' (EdD118, F, 35-39). This was supported by a participant who reflected upon how her motivation for volunteering had changed over time:

> **Alison:** My shift has changed slightly. That now that I'm actually in a community. I think it's having children – I want to volunteer with the pre-school and raise money for the village because we're going to be here and we're going to benefit from it (focus group 2).

The notion that volunteers motivations can change over time and over their life course (Wilson, 2000) is a key conclusion of this research and is a theme that will be returned to throughout chapters 4, 5 and 6. It highlights the importance of adopting an approach of intelligent action (Dewey, 1998). This approach will enable volunteers and their managers to review the motivations of the volunteers to monitor for changes. This is a fundamental to achieving the panacea of volunteering, rather than leaving the outcomes of volunteering to serendipity or chance.

Whilst the Community Life Survey (The Department for Digital Culture Media & Sport, 2018) reported that during 2017-18, 25% of adults aged over 75 volunteered monthly and 32% formally volunteered on an annual basis nationally, no one from this group participated in this survey. Additionally, very few people aged over 65 participated in this research whereas, during 2017-18, 29% of this group formally volunteered monthly and 42% formally volunteered on an annual basis nationally (The Department for Digital Culture Media & Sport, 2018). This is a large disparity between the respondents who volunteered in work with young people and volunteering in general (Table 2.3). This could be due to the way in which the research was conducted though the Community Life Survey is now self-completed online and so much more in line with the approach adopted in this research.

Firstly, the survey was conducted online. It would be ageist to think that older people would be less likely to be able to or wish to participate in an online survey and the fact that the Community Life Survey is now completed online suggests that this is not a factor in recruiting volunteers of this age to participate in research. Secondly, the focus group participants do not include anyone from this age group which might suggest a limitation in the researcher's own network. However, focus group 3 and 4 were identified and recruited through contacts at the local authority and therefore were from beyond the researcher's own network. Finally, the method chosen for recruiting volunteers to participate in the research was a purposive snowball sampling approach (Thomas, 2017) in order for individuals to volunteer to participate, not something that should be seen as demanding given their proven propensity to volunteer. Therefore, it is quite likely that the participants engaging in this research are broadly representative of volunteers in work with young people and therefore this issue may be a genuine one for the field.

As work with young people is increasingly relying more heavily (UK Youth, 2018) upon volunteers to deliver services to young people, volunteer recruiters will need to appeal to volunteers from all spectrums of society. From my own perspective as a volunteer recruiter and youth worker, the greater concern is the opportunities that are not being capitalised on: firstly, the benefits for young people of building relationships with adults of all ages (Ingram and Harris, 2013); secondly the importance of creating spaces for intergenerational relationships which strengthen communities (Percy-Smith and Thomas, 2010) and finally, the benefits of volunteering to work with young people to the older volunteers (Komp, van Kersbergen and van Tilburg, 2013). The latter will be discussed throughout this chapter in relation to the functions of volunteering as identified by Clary and Snyder et al (1998).

This age group may not be motivated to volunteer in work with young people for a range of reasons. One reason may be the moral panic (Kehily, 2013) around young people's lives which is reinforced by Government policy and media discourse (Thompson, 2012). These fears were echoed by members of focus group 4:

> **Isobel:** I think in terms of you asking me about working with older age groups, like teenagers, so the first thing I put is I would find that quite scary. I don't have teenagers and I just know the stereotypes (focus group 4).

Whilst this might be the case for some adults, one older participant highlighted why they had ceased to volunteer: "I am no longer actively volunteering but enjoyed it when I did. I gave up mainly because of my age, mobility and loss of interest" (EdD049, M, 60-64). The challenge for work with young people is therefore threefold:

1. How to reassure potential volunteers of the benefits to volunteering in work with young people;
2. How to maintain volunteers' interest over their life course (Wilson, 2000), and;
3. How to find ways for older and less mobile volunteers to participate?

The second largest group of participants in this research were aged 50-64 years (n=34, 24.5%). 15 (10.9%) individuals within this group were from one particular charity which provides sailing trips for young people. At first glance this type of activity appears to be expensive with the potential to appeal to certain groups, and perhaps most importantly for work with young people, exclude certain groups (Sercombe, 2010). Given the number of participants from this organisation their impact upon the overall responses will be explored further throughout this and the following chapter where relevant.

In terms of volunteer motivation, the opportunity to help this charity may appear to appeal to those who wish to sail first and be concerned about the 'service user' second. However, many respondents spoke very passionately about the values and outcomes of the organisation: 'The [organisation] is a very special organisation and has an ethos that its volunteers feel strongly about and identify with' (EdD048, M, 40-44) whereas one of the younger volunteers working with this organisation felt that they '… get to work with people less fortunate than yourself and come to understand how lucky you actually are' (EdD044, F, 16-19, Q.14). Ultimately respondents shared a complex set of views:

> 'I don't really view myself as volunteering, more enjoying sailing with a variety of people and helping them to develop both sailing and life skills through the experience. Young people are part of this but equally important are the other 'vulnerable' groups we sail with. I gain as much as the people I sail with and being part of sail training has helped me to personally develop more and given me continuity than any other part of my life other than close family over the last 35 years' (EdD067, M, 50-54).

Whilst this respondent initially identified that they were sharing their skills and knowledge they go on to reflect upon how volunteering has supported their personal development. Learning about themselves is an important part of volunteering, as will be discussed further in Chapter 5. This type of learning can often be hidden and difficult to identify in yourself, unlike learning a skill. Professionally qualified workers are perfectly placed to support volunteers to reflect upon their learning in similar ways to which they support young people to do so.

The younger end of the age spectrum was well represented in the research participants, as can be seen in Table 4.2. This is important with regard to the aim of developing a culture of people volunteering across their lives and also a step towards arguing that volunteering in work with young people makes a contribution to lifelong learning (Duguid, Mundel and Schugurensky, 2013) in England. As one survey participant stated:

> The impact that youth leaders had on me as a teenager are the reason that I started and continue as a youth leader (EdD016, F, 40-44)

There were more women participants in each age group other than those aged 50-64 years and above. There may be a number of reasons for this, one being that whilst the rates of formal volunteering by men and women were the same nationally (Cabinet Office, 2018) women's rates of informal volunteering was higher (Cabinet Office, 2018). It may be, therefore, that women of this age are looking after parents or grandchildren. Where respondents have discussed these issues, they will be explored further with regard to the relevant volunteer functions or themes in the following chapter.

4.1.3 Employment Status of research participants

The relevance of volunteering in work with young people to the participant's careers is critically explored in the Career Function section of Chapter 5. Of the participants in this research only 9.5% (n=13) were unemployed. As a result, the participants are 'successful' adults who may be able to share their experiences with the young people that they engage with. However, these adults, should they not come from similar backgrounds, may also need to be supported to understand the complex lives and experiences of the young people and the barriers that they face.

Male participants (n=33, 24.1%) were over twice as likely to be employed for more than 40 hours a week than the female participants (n=15, 10.9%). As there were fewer men than women who participated in this research, this group constitutes 58.9% of the male respondents and 18.8% of the female respondents. It is unclear as to why participants were working over 40 hours a week, how many hours they needed to work over 40 and the regularity of such work but overemployment inevitably reduces the time available to individuals to donate to volunteering. Yet they are still the second largest group of participants in this research. Of course, some individuals may have ceased their volunteering for this reason and be reporting on previous volunteering. Time was both explicitly and implicitly a barrier to volunteering identified by all the focus groups. This will be discussed further in Chapter 5.

Table 4-3: Employment Status of research participants

		Sex	Count	Percent
Employed	Employed, working 40 or more hours per week	Male	33	24.1%
		Female	15	10.9%
		Total	48	35.0%
	Employed, working 1 - 39 hours per week	Male	13	9.5%
		Female	43	31.4%
		Prefer not to say	1	0.7%
		Total	57	41.6%
Economically Inactive	Full time student	Male	3	2.2%
		Female	9	6.6%
		Total	12	8.8%
	Part time student, not looking for work	Male	0	0.0%
		Female	1	0.7%
		Total	1	0.7%
	Retired	Male	4	2.9%
		Female	1	0.7%
		Total	5	3.6%
	Disabled, not able to work	Male	0	0.0%
		Female	1	0.7%
		Total	1	0.7%
Unemployed	Not employed, looking for work	Male	2	1.5%
		Female	1	0.7%
		Total	3	2.2%
	Not employed, not looking for work	Male	1	0.7%
		Female	9	6.6%
		Total	10	7.3%
Total		Male	56	40.9%
		Female	80	58.4%
		Prefer not to say	1	0.7%
		Total	137	100.0%

Female participants (n=43, 31.4%) were significantly more likely than their male participants (n=13, 9.5%) to be working up to 39 hours per week and yet still they are more likely to volunteer than men, see Table 4-3. Whilst the exact number of hours worked each week by individuals is unknown, when comparing the experiences of men and women across similar employment statuses more women participated in this research in every group other than those who were retired and those not employed, looking for work (Table 4-3) (Retired, Male, n=4, 2.9%, Female, n=1, 0.7%; Not employed, looking for work, Male, n=2, 1.5%, Female, n=1, 0.7%). These responses appear to reinforce the theory that men's volunteering appears to be secondary to their professional life, in contrast to female volunteers who appear to volunteer throughout their lives. This may well suggest different perceptions of and requirements from their volunteering and therefore volunteer motivations which will be explored further in Chapter 5.

Whilst it cannot be said that this proves women are more likely to volunteer in work with young people the very fact that participants were asked to 'volunteer' to complete the survey suggests that their propensity to volunteer is strong and that this is an area worth exploring further. Of course, it may be that men are less likely to volunteer in work with young people and perhaps volunteer less generally if they do not achieve the outcomes from such work that women do, or in fact if they can achieve the same or better outcomes from other means. It may be that women need to bolster their general experiences in study and work with volunteering in order to close a gendered gap in life and career experiences not faced by men. These differences will be explored further where relevant in both the rest of this chapter and chapter 5.

As stated in Chapter 2, during the period of undertaking this research the way in which participants employment status in the Community Life Survey has changed. Rather than eight categories there are now three: in employment, unemployed and economically inactive. Whilst this is not ideal for comparisons, the previous categories were probably clearer for individuals to understand that, for example, they were a part-time student not looking for work as opposed to being economically inactive which is relevant to anyone who is not in employment and who has not been seeking work within the last four weeks and/or are unable to start work within the next 2 weeks (Office for National Statistics, 2018). Fortunately, the previous categories are easily mapped against the three new options as presented in Table 4-3. The only group that does not automatically map across are Full Time Students, the assumption being that they are not working on top of their studies, but many students still need to undertake some kind of work, whatever the size of contract, in order to supplement their income. For the purpose of this research they have been classified as economically inactive.

The largest group of participants are in employment, which is the same as the respondents to the Community Life Survey of whom the largest group were employed and second largest was individuals who were economically inactive. The career motivations and outcomes of volunteering in work with young people will be discussed more completely in Chapter 5.

When considering supporting people back into work, it is important to consider whether organisations that work with young people should do more to engage with volunteers who are unemployed or economically inactive. The latter in particular may not have paid career motivations which is an implicit aim when considering volunteering as a way to enter into employment. Those volunteers for whom paid employment is not a goal could offer longstanding voluntary contributions to an organisation which is the aim/hope of many volunteer recruiters (Bales, 1996). This would reduce the time and financial costs of recruiting and training new volunteers which can be substantial (Bales, 1996) and also facilitates the building of enduring relationships between the volunteer and volunteer organisation (Finkelstien, 2009) and the young people who access the service (Ingram and Harris, 2001; Sapin, 2013b). However, one aspect to consider is the reasons why someone is economically inactive. If this is due to ill-health, there may be a range of activities that individuals do not feel able to support and they may not be relied upon to attend sessions regularly if their health does not allow it. Whilst this is obviously understandable it may affect the roles in which these volunteers can be employed. Trustee, administrative or managerial roles may be suitable but face to face positions may not be appropriate. Unfortunately, this may impact upon individuals' initial and ongoing motivation as they may not see the impact of their work as clearly or they may not see their roles as being as enjoyable as it would be if they were engaging with the young people.

> **Charles:** I was actually just thinking because I am a trustee in another (charity) and I would echo your feelings about the responsibilities and sometimes the dryness of all the administrative things that have to happen. What I then thought about with regard to [the organisation] in particular, is that it works for me so well because it is so well defined, as these two hours and its sort of like a boost of motivation for me, you feel that you make a difference, *erm* hopefully it has made a difference and it's not just that you feel it (focus group 1).

The five women in focus group 3 identified themselves as being long-term volunteers and it was clearly a large part of their identity; 'even if I had to work, I'd still do some volunteering' (**Hilary**, focus group 3 participant). For this group the idea of volunteering as a way to paid work was a contradiction, they were volunteers and proud to be so and paid work, even within a similar field, was a different prospect. This was also reflected by some survey participants:

> I think that volunteering enables you to experience a field of work without the same pressures & expectation that would be placed upon you if it were a paid role. You can turn up & enjoy the experience knowing that your work is not being judged according to a job description. You are there because you want to be there & gain satisfaction from the knowledge that the time you gave made a difference to young people's lives. :) (EdD114, 50 – 54, Female).

4.1.4 Ethnic Background of research participants

According to the data collected in the 2011 Census, "the total population of England and Wales was 56.1 million, and 86.0% of the population was White' (The Cabinet Office, 2018b). The percentage of the population of England and Wales that was White British decreased from 87.4% to 80.5% between the 2001 and 2011 census (The Cabinet Office, 2018b). Table 4-4 demonstrates a comparative lack of ethnic diversity in the research participants which is disappointing, when compared to the England and Wales average. The strengths and limitations of the methodology for recruiting participants in this research, which may have contributed to this, has already been discussed in chapter 3.

Table 4-4: Ethnic background of research participants

	Sex	Count	Percent
English/Welsh/Scottish/Northern Irish/British	Male	47	34.1%
	Female	73	52.9%
	Prefer not to say	1	0.7%
	Total	121	87.7%
Irish	Male	1	0.7%
	Female	1	0.7%
	Total	2	1.4%
Any other White background	Male	3	2.2%
	Female	2	1.4%
	Total	5	3.6%
White and Black African	Male	0	0.0%
	Female	1	0.7%
	Total	1	0.7%
White and Asian	Male	1	0.7%
	Female	0	0.0%
	Total	1	0.7%
Pakistani	Male	2	1.4%
	Female	0	0.0%
	Total	2	1.4%
Chinese	Male	0	0.0%
	Female	1	0.7%
	Total	1	0.7%
Any other Asian/Asian British background	Male	0	0.0%
	Female	1	0.7%
	Total	1	0.7%
African	Male	1	0.7%
	Female	0	0.0%
	Total	1	0.7%
Any other Black/Black British background	Male	0	0.0%
	Female	1	0.7%
	Total	1	0.7%
Any other ethnic group	Male	1	0.7%
	Female	1	0.7%
	Total	2	1.4%
Total	Male	56	40.6%
	Female	81	58.7%
	Prefer not to say	1	0.7%
	Total	138	100.0%

Within the recent iterations of the Community Life Survey, respondents have been asked about their friends in order to elicit how heterogenous our society is. In 2017-18 the percentages remained fairly consistent with the previous year's findings with 40% of people saying that all of their friends were the same ethnic group as themselves; 16% were all the same age group; 28% were from the same religious group and 19% said all their friends had a similar level of education (Cabinet Office, 2018). A value of organisations which work with young people, as discussed in Chapter 2, is to support young people to develop their resilience and empower young people to flourish (Ingram and Harris, 2001; Brierley, 2003; Fitzsimons *et al.*, 2011).

What this means may be debatable across the groups which work with young people and different groups might prioritise this in different ways, so faith groups may prioritise the development of a strong faith over other characteristics, but many articulate valuing diversity (Brierley, 2003; Sapin, 2013b) and social cohesion (National Citizen Service, 2018). Supporting young people to meet with individuals, both other young people and adults, from diverse cultural backgrounds is vital to this (Sercombe, 2010). The challenge for work with young people is achieving a balance where young people can find role models that look like them whilst also creating spaces where young people can be exposed to and learn from adults from other identities and communities.

Furthermore, if work with young people is to aspire to contribute positively to social mobility then volunteers must be recruited from across the broadest sections of society, but particularly those who might benefit the most. From the data above, it appears that at present, volunteering in work with young people does not reflect the demographics of England. It therefore risks reinforcing and reconstructing social inequality and inequality of access to services for young people (Thompson, 2012) and so, as discussed in Chapter 2, we must find ways to bring differing groups together in order to share and build new personal, social and intellectual capitals and to learn to value the capitals that different groups already have (Gratton and Ghoshal, 2003). Due to the small numbers of participants from an ethnic background that was not English/Welsh/Scottish/Northern Irish/British this data will not be explored further with regard to the Volunteer Functions. There may be much more to learn from future research into the volunteering motivations and experiences of different ethnic groups.

4.1.5 Religious background of research participants

A substantial section of the literature regarding volunteer motivation discussed in Chapter 2 explored religious affiliation (Wilson and Janoski, 1995). Of the participants who identified as religious, the predominant group were Christian (n=66, 47.5%). 38.9% (n=54) were not religious. Of those participants who were religious many did not practise their religion actively (n=83, 59.8%) with just 38 participants (27.4%) actively participating in religious life. Just 21 participants (15.1%) reported that their volunteering was linked to their faith.

Table 4-5: Religion of survey respondents

	Sex	Count	Percent
No Religion	Male	23	17.3%
	Female	30	22.6%
	Total	53	39.8%
Christian	Male	27	20.3%
	Female	38	28.6%
	Prefer not to say	1	0.8%
	Total	66	49.6%
Buddhist	Male	1	0.8%
	Female	1	0.8%
	Total	2	1.5%
Jewish	Male	1	0.8%
	Female	1	0.8%
	Total	2	1.5%
Muslim	Male	2	1.5%
	Female	0	0.0%
	Total	2	1.5%
Sikh	Male	0	0.0%
	Female	1	0.8%
	Total	1	0.8%
Any other religion	Male	0	0.0%
	Female	1	0.8%
	Total	1	0.8%
Prefer not to say	Male	1	0.8%
	Female	3	2.3%
	Total	4	3.0%
Other	Male	1	0.8%
	Female	1	0.8%
	Total	2	1.5%
Total	Male	56	42.1%
	Female	76	57.1%
	Prefer not to say	1	0.8%
	Total	133	100.0%

Borgonovi (2014) observed that religious people do not necessarily just volunteer in religious settings but in secular ones too. The data collected from the participants in this research support this view as very few of the places people were volunteering were religiously affiliated or expressly religious. This is further reinforced by the responses given to these questions by the participants in focus group 3 who were volunteering in a faith-based setting. Not all these volunteers identified as having a faith, not all who expressed their faith were practicing and two participants identified that not all their volunteering was related to their faith.

Table 4-6: Whether volunteer actively participates in their religion

	Sex	Count	Percent
Yes	Male	18	14.0%
	Female	19	14.7%
	Total	37	28.7%
No	Male	34	26.4%
	Female	47	36.4%
	Prefer not to say	1	0.8%
	Total	82	63.6%
Prefer not to say	Male	3	2.3%
	Female	7	5.4%
	Total	10	7.8%
Total	Male	55	42.6%
	Female	73	56.6%
	Prefer not to say	1	0.8%
	Total	129	100.0%

Table 4-6 highlights a key issue when discussing volunteers' faith. Whilst 66 (49.6%) of respondents identified as being Christian, the biggest group in the research, only 37 (56% of the group) actively participated in their religion. However, giving to others, in this case time, is an act very in keeping with most religious teachings and may be a more comfortable expression for a modern sense of faith than regular church attendance. Further research is needed to understand the relationship between religion and volunteering in work with young people more fully.

Table 4-7: Volunteering relationship to religious affiliation of survey respondents

	Sex	Count	Percent
Yes	Male	7	8.1%
	Female	15	17.4%
	Total	22	25.6%
No	Male	33	38.4%
	Female	31	36.0%
	Total	64	74.4%
Total	Male	40	46.5%
	Female	46	53.5%
	Prefer not to say	0	0.0%
	Total	86	100.0%

15.9% (n=22) of participants in this research said that their volunteering was linked to their faith. Whilst faith groups may have stepped in to some of the gaps opened by the closure of local authority youth services (Thompson, 2019) this data does not illustrate whether volunteering in activities linked to individual's faith has increased over the last few years as a result.

Unless specifically relevant, this identity characteristic will not be explored further in relation to the VFI functions and focus group discussions. This is due to the fact that the numbers of research participants who were from backgrounds other than not religious or Christian are too low to draw valuable comparisons.

4.1.6 Roles undertaken by research participants

Research participants were asked to state the title or remit of their voluntary roles. These were then grouped in to four types of role broadly based upon the level of responsibility or place within the structure of an organisation and whether the role was face to face with young people or managerial. The two biggest groups were face to face and they both had very similar numbers of participants in each group: Volunteer (n=56, 40.6%) and Group Leader (n=57, 41.3%).

Table 4-8: The title of participants voluntary role

	Sex	Count	Percent
Volunteer	Male	21	15.7%
	Female	35	26.1%
	Total	56	41.8%
Trustee or Board Member	Male	6	4.5%
	Female	5	3.7%
	Total	11	8.2%
School Governor	Male	2	1.5%
	Female	2	1.5%
	Total	4	3.0%
Group Leader	Male	27	20.1%
	Female	29	21.6%
	Prefer not to say	1	0.7%
	Total	57	42.5%
Mentor or Counsellor	Male	0	0.0%
	Female	6	4.5%
	Total	6	4.5%
Total	Male	56	41.8%
	Female	77	57.5%
	Prefer not to say	1	0.7%
	Total	134	100.0%

There were 11 participants who identified as undertaking Trustee roles, of whom five were women. The role of School Governor was identified as being another senior or strategic role undertaken by the respondents; 2 of which were male and 2 were female. Young people facing positions were undertaken by 119 individuals. This included 57 who assumed some kind of leader or manager role, 29 of whom were women. Whilst these roles will have been operationalised in different ways across different organisations, they can all be said to have been roles which included taking greater responsibilities than a generic volunteer role.

Of the 72 research participants in a strategic or leadership roles 36 were female and 35 were male. This is much more even than the ratio of 2:1 identified in the voluntary sector more generally (Lee *et al.*, 2017); even if only those in trustee roles are compared the ratio is 6:5. Obviously no claim for generalisability to all adult volunteers in work with young people can be made; however, such an equal representation of women in trustee roles is a positive finding both in relation to the culture of equality of opportunity within and across work with young people but also in terms of the work's ability to potentially offer the prospect of participating in all areas of an organisation to groups which may be under-represented in other organisations across the voluntary and community sector. This is particularly important with regard to supporting any hopes that work with young people might contribute to the social mobility of its adult volunteers as much as the young people that it engages with.

Of those who work more closely with young people undertaking 'generic' roles, as categorised in this research by those who identified themselves as a 'volunteer' or 'mentor or counsellor', there were only 21 men to 41 women. Women being almost twice as likely to undertake 'generic' face to face roles is not necessarily problematic in itself if these roles are supporting them to meet their motivations for volunteering and supporting them to gain new skills and develop new networks as appropriate, as long as they are able to access more strategic roles should they wish to. However, given the discussion in Chapter 2 regarding the creation of a culture (Thompson, 2012) which supports and reinforces volunteering, but also acknowledging young people's needs for mentors who 'look like them' the lack of male role models in these positions for young men to build relationships with (Ingram and Harris, 2013) is problematic.

The median period that participants had volunteered for was 5-10 years. Participants who identified their roles as a Group Leader were more likely to have volunteered for 16+ years than all other groups (n=18) which constitutes 31.6% of the group compared to 12.4% of 'volunteers' (n=7), and 26.7% of Trustees, Board Members or School Governors (n=4). No Mentor or Counsellors had volunteered for 16+ years. It is not clear whether the participants had been volunteering in these roles for that period of time or had been volunteering generally for this period but were currently in these roles.

There may be a number of reasons why group leaders volunteer for longer. Firstly, being the leader of the groups might give individuals more of a sense of achievement as they can see the impact of their work on the project and young people who attend it. Secondly, as group leaders they may have more influence regarding the work being undertaken which may allow them to ensure that they are doing work that they enjoy, thus maintaining motivation. However, it may be that 'volunteers' and 'group leaders' are actually the same group of people and that over time volunteers take on more responsibility or get promoted. This was true for 6 survey respondents one of whom stated, 'starting as a junior volunteer hugely helped my confidence as a leader' (EdD080, 20 – 24, Female, Q.13). This perspective highlights the importance of authenticity within volunteering. Firstly, to give volunteers confidence in their increasing experience but also the sense that they are from the community in which they are working, although this may be with their fellow volunteers rather than the community they are volunteering with. The latter point is reinforced by a survey respondent who clarified: 'This is a community I am involved in, so I am not an outsider coming into volunteer' (EdD021, 40 – 44, Female, Q.8).

4.1.7 Volunteering duration

The biggest group of participants have been volunteering for 16 years plus. One would hope that this means that volunteers are happy with their experiences, and the Satisfaction VFI questions QS13-QS17 responses, discussed in section 5.10, seem to suggest this. Such long term volunteering means that there is the greatest opportunity for volunteers to learn and gain from their volunteering (Clary and Snyder, 2002).

Table 4-9: The length of time participant had been volunteering in current role

	Sex	Count	Percent
0 - 11 months	Male	3	3.0%
	Female	8	8.0%
	Prefer not to say	0	0.0%
	Total	11	11.0%
1 - 2 years	Male	3	3.0%
	Female	12	12.0%
	Prefer not to say	0	0.0%
	Total	15	15.0%
3 - 4 years	Male	6	6.0%
	Female	12	12.0%
	Prefer not to say	0	0.0%
	Total	18	18.0%
5 - 10 years	Male	7	7.0%
	Female	11	11.0%
	Prefer not to say	0	0.0%
	Total	18	18.0%
11 - 15 years	Male	5	5.0%
	Female	3	3.0%
	Prefer not to say	1	1.0%
	Total	9	9.0%
16 years plus	Male	21	21.0%
	Female	8	8.0%
	Prefer not to say	0	0.0%
	Total	29	29.0%
Total	Male	45	45.0%
	Female	54	54.0%
	Prefer not to say	1	1.0%
	Total	100	100.0%

Of the participants who were currently volunteering (n=100, 72.5%) 21% (n=29) had been volunteering for 16 years or more. The second biggest group of people who were currently volunteering had been doing so for 3-4 years (n=19, 13.8%) but this group was only slightly bigger than those who had been volunteering for 5-10 years (n=18, 13%). Of the others 14 (10.1%) had volunteered for between 1-2 years, 11 (8%) for less than a year and nine (6.5%) had been volunteering for 11-15 years.

Of those currently volunteering 40.5% of participants had been volunteering for over 5 years which illustrates that they are drawing on a lot of experience in giving their responses. It also suggests that volunteers enjoy their work with young people. This is not only a positive news story for working with young people, but defies the popular negative perspectives about young people and the moral panics (Kehily, 2013) which have been perennial across the ages (Kassem, Murphy and Taylor, 2010).

Table 4-10: Length of last volunteer role

	Sex	Count	Percent
0 - 11 months	Male	0	0.0%
	Female	3	7.7%
	Total	3	7.7%
1 - 2 years	Male	5	12.8%
	Female	9	23.1%
	Total	14	35.9%
3 - 4 years	Male	1	2.6%
	Female	5	12.8%
	Total	6	15.4%
5 - 10 years	Male	5	12.8%
	Female	6	15.4%
	Total	11	28.2%
11 - 15 years	Male	0	0.0%
	Female	1	2.6%
	Total	1	2.6%
16 years plus	Male	4	10.3%
	Female	0	0.0%
	Total	4	10.3%
Total	Male	15	38.5%
	Female	24	61.5%
	Prefer not to say	0	0.0%
	Total	39	100.0%

The question regarding 'old' volunteering posts was completed by 39 participants. It is clear from some free text comments on the survey that individuals had more than one volunteering experience in work with young people. Therefore, this may indicate an attempt by individuals to answer as fully as possibly about their current volunteering and any previous positions.

The largest group of respondents had volunteered for just 1-2 years (n=14, 10.1%). They may have only volunteered for this period for a range of reasons such as having met their needs or having a poor volunteering experience. There is research on volunteer retention (Ward and Mckillop, 2011; Dean, 2016) but the reasons for this was not an explicit question addressed by the online survey but demotivating factors were explored within the focus groups and is discussed later in this chapter.

One potential limitation of shorter volunteering opportunities is the impact upon an individual's ability to benefit from the process, perhaps most strongly, the ability to learn, as discussed in section 2.5.2. However, this will depend entirely upon what the volunteer may wish to learn from the process, should they have articulated their motivations in that way. Conversely, as reported by focus group participants (focus groups 3 and 4), there was a sense that volunteers can decide to leave for various reasons, including a sense that they had been doing it for a long time or being left without training.

There may well not be an optimal period of time to be a volunteer within each role or project; however, it seems clear that regularly checking in with volunteers to review their motivations and needs is a key facet of both initially inducting in volunteers, identifying and managing any gap between expectations and experience and in the ongoing management and support of volunteers in order to retain them.

The second biggest group of participants who were no longer volunteering had volunteered with young people for 5–10 years (n=11, 8%). This is a period of time consistent with those who volunteer in the clubs and projects whilst their children are of the age to use them.

> **Isobel:** I think relevance is important actually to why I volunteer because I suppose I volunteered in previous roles because I am interested in relating it back to what I did and do now because of children. And if I had teenagers I would like yep okay I'm going to maybe look at doing youth work, but not at the moment (focus group 4).

Whilst Bales (1996) asserts that the best way to identify someone with the propensity to volunteer is to find people who currently volunteer for other organisations and headhunt them, the feedback from participants in this research suggests this would not be a universally successful strategy. Participants in both the focus groups and the online survey expressed a very real commitment to the organisations or groups that they volunteered with:

> **Andrew:** I got involved because … it is such an important organisation (focus group 1)

Or because they benefited from the organisation, or one like it, themselves:

> The [organisation] is a rather special group in that the majority of the volunteers started out as trainees … (i.e. beneficiaries of the project) and as they got older came back to volunteer to ensure that more youths get the same opportunities to develop (EdD048, 40-44, Male).

Participants also expressed a commitment to giving back to their local community, often specifically in relation to a project which they or a family member are beneficiaries of:

> My shift has changed slightly. That now that I'm actually in a community. I think it's having children – I want to volunteer with the pre-school and raise money for the village because we're going to be here and we're going to benefit from it (**Alison**, focus group 2).

These motivations are aligned to Mueller's (1975) four categories to classify the benefits gained from volunteering particularly as their altruistic needs are being met and an individual or family member benefitting from the activity (such as a child participating in a youth project), the volunteer receiving a non-collective output, or selective incentive, the ability to access certain goods based upon a contribution to the collective good (such as prestige, social networks, the ability to sail boats whilst teaching young people the skills), and the development of their human capital.

4.1.8 Volunteering Recruitment

Only the survey respondents were asked how they first got involved in volunteering in work with young people and 30.6% (n=38) of respondents were asked to volunteer by someone that they know.

Table 4-11: How survey participants first got involved in volunteering with young people

	Sex	Count	Percent
I was asked to volunteer by someone I know	Male	16	12.9%
	Female	21	16.9%
	Prefer not to say	1	0.8%
	Total	38	30.6%
I responded to an advert	Male	2	1.6%
	Female	7	5.6%
	Total	9	7.3%
I contacted the organization or group to ask if I could volunteer	Male	8	6.5%
	Female	18	14.5%
	Total	26	21.0%
Other (please specify)	Male	28	22.6%
	Female	23	18.5%
	Total	51	41.1%
Total	Male	54	43.5%
	Female	69	55.6%
	Prefer not to say	1	0.8%
	Total	124	100.0%

The biggest group of respondents stated that they first got involved in working with young people through 'other' means (n=51, 41.1%). However, when their responses were analysed, the biggest sub-group of these 'other' routes in to volunteering with young people can be categorised as having 'transitioned' i.e. starting with a project as a recipient or service user and ending up volunteering there (n=34, 27.4%) and therefore their recruitment was actually related to volunteer proximity (Paik and Navarre-Jackson, 2010; Nesbit, 2012), that is to say that they were already associated in some way with the organisation or group that they would ultimately volunteer for.

This is extremely important for the recruitment and retention of volunteers and may be facilitated by the developmental nature of youth work. It does have serious implications for those who are responsible for recruiting and managing volunteers as it signifies where their main volunteer market is. It could also have implications for the length of time volunteers will commit to an organisation as they should have reasonable expectations of the work of the organisation or project based upon their experience (Finkelstien, 2009). Having said that, for some volunteers the dissonance between their experience as a recipient or group member and their responsibilities as a volunteer may be too great. Whilst it is positive to recognise that there is a volunteer market potentially on one's doorstep it does raise challenging questions when there is a need to find new people, either because you have too few or because there is an identified skills gap or need to diversify.

The second biggest group in the 'other' category involved just five respondents (4%) who identified that they were parents who were encouraged or felt inclined to help out. Three respondents (2.4%) identified that they had seen a gap or need and offered to fill it which is broadly in line with the main group who identified as having *contacted the organisation or group to ask if they could volunteer*. This starts to address the issue of recruitment identified above but only if the potential volunteers are made aware of the gap and this is a small group of respondents and therefore not a genuine solution to address volunteer shortages. Similarly, three respondents (2.4%) identified that they had been asked or recommended to volunteer by an organisation, had talked to a current volunteer or volunteered along with their parents which again is broadly in line with the group who identified as having been asked to volunteer by someone that they knew.

Three respondents (2.4%) identified that they were using skills from their 'day job', in these cases teaching, that it was natural to share more broadly by volunteering and two respondents (1.6%) identified that they themselves had set up the project in which they volunteered with only one respondent (0.8%) identifying their faith as having any factor in their initial reasons for volunteering in work with young people. Finally, one respondent (0.8%) identified a mix of reasons for their initial involvement in volunteering depending upon their different volunteering but identified that they continued the longest with those organisations whose values, purpose and characteristics most resonated with their own.

4.1.9 Distance

The biggest group of participants in the research (n=60, 43.4%) volunteered over 10 miles from home. This data may be affected by one particular project based in the south of England which offers sailing opportunities to young people, which the volunteers also partake in, thus providing them with an almost unique opportunity to sail in return. As such, not only is this likely to impact upon adult volunteers' motivation but as this is one of the few places in the country that such sailing opportunities can be accessed and so, whether voluntary or not, if adults wish to undertake such activities, they need to be prepared to travel a significant distance in order to do so. This charity also evokes a very strong sense of loyalty and commitment from its volunteers, as one volunteer answering the question 'I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving' stated "The [[organisation]] is a very special organisation and has an ethos that its volunteers feel strongly about and identify with".

Table 4-12: Distance from home to volunteer post for research participants

	Sex	Count	Percent
0 - 1 mile	Male	3	2.2%
	Female	18	13.3%
	Total	21	15.6%
1 - 2 miles	Male	5	3.7%
	Female	11	8.1%
	Total	16	11.9%
2 - 3 miles	Male	2	1.5%
	Female	10	7.4%
	Total	12	8.9%
3 - 4 miles	Male	1	0.7%
	Female	7	5.2%
	Total	8	5.9%
4 - 5 miles	Male	0	0.0%
	Female	4	3.0%
	Total	4	3.0%
5 - 10 miles	Male	5	3.7%
	Female	9	6.7%
	Total	14	10.4%
over 10 miles	Male	40	29.6%
	Female	19	14.1%
	Prefer not to say	1	0.7%
	Total	60	44.4%
Total	Male	56	41.5%
	Female	78	57.8%
	Prefer not to say	1	0.7%
	Total	135	100.0%

However, there were other participants that were prepared to travel a greater distance in order to volunteer. What all these volunteers had in common is their values aligning to those of the organisation that they volunteer with and the uniqueness of the volunteer organisation itself, as expressed by a participant in focus group 1:

> **Charles:** So one of the reasons why I in particular with [[organisation]] *erm* why I got involved was because they approached me to join the board of trustees and that was not anything that I had done before it was kind of a, quite a different experience to what I'd had in that way it was, that was really alluring in one respect but also really inviting because it is such an important organisation as well (focus group 1).

These volunteers clearly felt that the effort was worthwhile. This was highlighted by a discussion in focus group 2 who talked about the importance of reciprocity:

> **Betty:** Reciprocity – I think it's about give and take. Sometimes if you know that you've got to give a load of time but you feel that there's quite a lot that you are going to get out of it and the young person's going to get out of it and there's loads and loads of benefits then it's an equal balance or it tips the balance over (focus group 2).

Whilst this second perspective represents rather more than reciprocity but does explain why volunteers would travel more than 10 miles to volunteer for 16 years. The notion of reciprocity will be discussed in more detail in section 5.11.1.

The next biggest groups of volunteers only travelled between 0-1 miles (n=20, 14.5%) and 1-2 miles (n=17, 12.3%). Most of the participants in the focus groups were in these groups, perhaps because they were volunteering in community-based projects, which was part of their reason for volunteering. There was one focus group member who travelled more than 10 miles to volunteer, but again, they were volunteering with a very specific organisation which provides county-wide services for young people.

4.2 Focus Groups

Four focus groups were held with a total of 16 participants. The following are pen pictures of each of the groups:

Pen Picture: Focus Group 1

This group comprised of three men who all volunteered for an organisation working with a specific identity group in a city. All three men identified as having the same identity characteristic as the young people who accessed the project, and this was articulated as being one of their main motivating factors for volunteering with this group. Two of the men volunteer with the young people in the project and one was on the board of trustees.

Pen Picture: Focus Group 2

This group comprised of four individuals, one man and three women, with a range of experience of volunteering in work with young people. Three worked in and around the field of work with young people and one had no other link to the field other than their voluntary work. Two were still volunteering whilst two were not. They had volunteered in a range of different capacities from the Duke of Edinburgh Scheme to open access projects and volunteered informally as well as formally.

Pen Picture: Focus Group 3

Whilst this group all volunteered in projects established and over seen by the local church not all of the five women who participated in the research identified faith as being a motivating factor. For all five women their volunteering was based firmly around the geography of their community which is an estate with high levels of deprivation, but which has a clearly identified and articulated sense of identity and belonging. The church was working in partnership with a Local Authority Community Development Officer who was employing a positive deviance model (Pascale, Sternin and Sternin, 2010) to develop volunteering capacity within the community to address reduction in services brought about by local authority budget cuts, particularly for youth services (Unison, 2014).

Pen Picture: Focus Group 4

Four women participated in focus group 4. They had all been volunteering for two years or more with the Local Authority in a Children's Centre, three in one town and one in a neighbouring town. Three volunteers felt that they had come to the end of their volunteering and expressed frustration at seeing the Children's Centre's services and staff cutback to the point where they felt responsible for the survival of their project and that despite the best efforts of the staff, they felt very unsupported. The final participant, who worked in a different centre, planned to continue volunteering for the foreseeable future.

This group were volunteering with children under 4 so they were included in this study as they were thinking about future volunteering opportunities and exploring whether they would consider volunteering with young people in the future.

4.2.1 Participants

There were 4 males and 12 females in total who participated in the focus groups. The greatest proportion of focus group participants were aged 35-49 (n=11, 68.8%) with the second biggest group being those aged 25-34-year olds (n=4, 25%). One participant (6.2%) was aged between 50-64 years.

The biggest group of respondents were married and living with their spouse (n=10, 62.5%) with one respondent being in a registered same-sex civil partnership, making this group 11 of the 16 participants (68.7%). The rest of the participants were single (n=5, 31.3%).

Respondents came from a range of different occupations, the biggest group being those who were in some way currently unemployed (n=6, 37.5%). These participants clarified their position with two amending the response sheet to clarify that they were full time community volunteers, two explaining that they were full-time or stay at home mums and one that she was a full-time housewife. The rest of the participants were in higher managerial, administrative and professional occupations (n=4, 25%) and lower managerial, administrative and professional occupations (n=4, 25%). One participant was a small employer or own account worker and one worked in an intermediate occupation.

The biggest group of participants had a household income of more than £50,000 per annum (n=5, 31.3%). The other respondents' household income was distributed as follows: 0-£9,999 (n=1, 6.2%), £10,000-£19,999 (n=2, 12.5%), £30,000-£39,999 (n=5, 31.3%), £40,000-£49,999 (n=2, 12.5%). One respondent felt unable to answer the question as their partner had just been made redundant.

Those whose highest qualification was a Degree (n=6, 37.5%) made up the biggest group, whereas those with a Higher Degree / Postgraduate Qualification were the second biggest group of participants (n=5, 31.3%). The other respondents' educational achievement was distributed as follows: DipHE or equivalent (n=1, 6.3%), A/AS Level or equivalent (n=2, 12.5%), O Level / GCSE or equivalent (n=1, 6.3%) and no qualifications (n=1, 6.3%).

The largest group of participants (n=12, 75%) identified themselves as being English, Welsh, Scottish, Northern Irish or British. One participant (6.3%) identified as being Irish, one Chinese, one Chinese/White British and one any other white background.

68.8% (n=11) of respondents identified themselves as being Christian including Catholic whereas the rest of the participants (n=5, 31.3%) identified themselves as having no religion. Of those who identified as being religious five (31.3%) identified themselves a practising their religion actively where as 11 (68.7%) were not. Of those actively practising their faith, only three (18.8%) identified that their volunteering was directly related to their religious activities.

For those who were currently volunteering and answered the question, the biggest number of participants had been volunteering for 3-4 years (n=4, 25%), two (12.5%) had been volunteering for 0-11 months, two (12.5%) for between 1 and 2 years, two (12.5%) for 11 to 15 years and two (12.5%) over 16 years. The participant who was currently not volunteering had volunteered for between 1 and 2 years.

The biggest group of participants who answered the question volunteered between 1-2 miles away from home (n=5, 31.3%), with the second biggest group volunteering less than a mile from home (n=3, 18.8%). The rest of the respondents volunteered between 2-3 miles (n=2, 12.5%), 5-10 miles (n=2, 12.5%) and over ten miles (n=1, 6.3%).

4.3 Conclusion

In this chapter the demographics of the respondents to the online survey and focus group have been presented. Participants responses to the questions have been discussed and analysed according to their identity groups. It is through these characteristics, and adopting an intersectional (Hill Collins and Bilge, 2016) lens, that their motivations for volunteering will be explored in Chapter 5, which will also compare and critically analyse the motivations and barriers experienced by different groups.

In the following Chapter, I will critically discuss the participants identity characteristics in relation to their responses to the online survey or focus group discussions in relation to the Volunteer Functions identified by Clary et al (1998). I will also compare the data collected via the survey and focus groups with the literature already discussed in Chapter 2.

5. Findings and Discussion

The last chapter explored the demographics of the participants in this research and discussed and analysed their responses according to their identity groups adopting an intersectional (Hill Collins and Bilge, 2016) lens. Chapter 5, will critically discuss the participants identity characteristics in relation to their responses to the online survey or focus group discussions in relation to the Volunteer Functions identified by Clary et al (1998). It will also compare the data collected via the survey and focus groups with the literature already discussed in Chapter 2.

5.1 A critical analysis of volunteering in work with young people

Both the survey responses and the focus group discussions will be examined and analysed in relation to the six functions identified by Clary *et al* (1998) and the literature discussed in Chapter 2.

The first section of the online survey explored respondents' general perceptions regarding volunteering whereas the second part of the survey explored the outcomes that volunteers felt that they benefitted from by volunteering in work with young people specifically. Both parts of the survey explored all 6 functions.

The focus groups explored what motivated individuals to volunteer in work with young people and the barriers that prevented them or might prevent them from volunteering with young people. They also explored the factors which made a good volunteering experience and what made for a bad volunteering experience.

Table 5-1: Survey Respondents reasons for volunteering generally

Question	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree
1. Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.	32.0%	20.0%	48.0%
2. My friends volunteer.	37.0%	11.3%	48.6%
3. I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.	3.2%	7.2%	89.6%
4. People I'm close to want me to volunteer.	42.7%	37.1%	20.2%
5. Volunteering makes me feel important.	31.5%	20.2%	48.4%
6. People I know share an interest in community service.	7.2%	17.6%	75.2%
7. No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it.	18.6%	26.6%	54.8%
8. I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.	4.0%	12.1%	83.9%
9. By volunteering I feel less lonely.	32.8%	31.2%	36.0%
10. I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.	29.6%	20.8%	49.6%
11. Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.	63.2%	19.2%	17.6%
12. I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.	11.2%	12.8%	76.0%
13. Volunteering increases my self-esteem.	5.6%	16.0%	78.4%
14. Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.	4.0 %	4.0%	92.0%
15. Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.	25.8%	22.6%	51.6%
16. I feel compassion toward people in need.	1.6%	10.5%	87.9%
17. Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service.	15.3%	24.2%	60.5%
18. Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience.	4.0%	4.0%	92.0%
19. I feel it is important to help others.	0.8%	1.6%	97.6%
20. Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems.	46.0%	26.6%	27.4%
21. Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession.	29.0%	25.8%	45.2%
22. I can do something for a cause that is important to me.	0.8%	3.2%	96.0%
23. Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.	20.3%	35.8%	43.9%
24. Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.	41.5%	26.8%	31.7%
25. I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.	0.8%	2.4%	96.8%
26. Volunteering makes me feel needed.	15.4%	22.0%	62.6%
27: Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.	8.1%	20.3%	71.5%
28. Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.	8.9%	22.6%	68.5%
29. Volunteering is a way to make new friends.	1.6%	14.5%	83.9%
30. I can explore my own strengths.	2.5%	4.9%	92.6%

Table 5-2: Respondents' motivations for volunteering in work with young people

Question	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree
31. In volunteering to work with young people, I made new contacts that might help my business or career.	33.6%	22.7%	43.7%
32. People I know best know that I am/was volunteering to work with young people	3.4%	9.3%	87.3%
33. People I am genuinely concerned about are being helped through my volunteer work with young people	9.2%	21.0%	69.8%
34. From volunteering to work with young people, I feel better about myself	5.0%	27.0%	68.0%
35. Volunteering to work with young people allows me the opportunity to escape some of my own troubles	40.7%	30.5%	28.8%
36. I have learned how to deal with a greater variety of people through volunteering to work with young people	0.8%	2.5%	96.7%
37. As a volunteer working with young people, I have been able to explore possible career options	33.9%	20.3%	45.8%
38. My friends found out that I am volunteering to work with young people	5.9%	33.9%	60.2%
39. Through volunteering to work with young people, I am doing something for a cause that I believe in	0	3.4%	96.6%
40. My self-esteem is enhanced by performing volunteer work	7.7%	20.5%	71.8%
41. By volunteering to work with young people, I have been able to work through some of my own personal problems	44.0%	34.0%	22.0%
42. I have been able to learn more about the cause for which I am working by volunteering	0.8%	12.0%	87.2%
43. I am enjoying my volunteer experience	0	0.9%	99.1%
44. My volunteer experience has been personally fulfilling	0	3.4%	96.6%
45. The experience of volunteering to work with young people has been a worthwhile one	0	0	100%
46. I have been able to make an important contribution by volunteering to work with young people	0	5.1%	94.9%
47. I have accomplished a great deal of "good" through my volunteer work	0.0%	7.0%	93.0%

48. One year from now, will you be (please circle your best guess as of today):

A. volunteering to work with young people = 76.5%
B. volunteering in another field = 13.0%
C. not volunteering at all = 10.4%

5.2 Focus Group Outcomes

Question 1: What motivates you to volunteer in work with young people?

Table 5-3: Question 1, Focus Group 1

Focus Group 1		
Theme	**Post-its**	**Votes**
Making a difference for [[identity]] communities	To make a difference for young people To try and support young [[identity]] people Have never before engaged with any aspect of [identity]] community – why not start here? Making a difference in young people's lives (sharing own experiences, being supportive)	5
Personal fulfilment	Not having children of our own motivates to spend extra time	2
Helping others	I enjoy helping others and this seems like a worthy cause	1
New skills	I enjoy 'teaching' or being in a similar capacity – this seemed ideal Learning skills, leading groups, direct 1:1 To gain new skills and have new experiences	1
Applying skills	Direct impact on people's lives (different to day job) To try and put academic work into practice and use it in an applied setting	
Work environment	Great colleagues / friends Enjoy projects and being involved in team environments – this fulfils that need!	
Which negative can overcome all the positives?	Serious illness Family matters Unpleasant colleagues	

Table 5-4: Question 1, Focus Group 2

Focus Group 2		
Theme	**'Post it' Responses**	**Votes**
Proactive responsibility / Moral conscience	I had a skill set that others didn't and was needed e.g. assessor	5
Professional outcomes	Good for CV Professional Development	
Values and beliefs	Passion and belief in the benefit of something e.g. sharing of a skill Mentoring in school: important to have non-school adult to talk to	2
Giving opportunity	Giving Opportunity Young People would miss out if I didn't Belief in the positive outcome for young people and the project To give young people what I perceive I missed out on as a young person Support for young people who need it To help the world to achieve their best	3
Personal Outcomes	Learning new skills Seen as an admirable use of time by others Personal gain e.g. my community, for my children, give back invest Personal gratification	2
Awareness / Exposure	TV / Media	
Which negative can overcome all the positives?	Time Bad volunteering experience Time Time	

Table 5-5: Question 1, Focus Group 3

Focus Group 3		
Theme	**Post-its**	**Votes**
Change for the better	Share knowledge To make a change Help to make a difference Because I like to help others To make a difference and people took the time to help me when I was young	5
Compassion	To see them grow Interested Because I think they're worth it Compassion for ones who don't get any Care / Love them	5
Personal experience	Because I care about al people and by volunteering I can make things happen (good) Because I was once in the same shoes so like to help where I can Been in the same situation	4
Self-improvement	Because I enjoy it! For my future Enjoy meeting people / Enjoy meeting new people Keep busy Just driven to it	1
Which negative can overcome all the positives?	Health x 2 My son's health and mine Not having the freedom to work voluntarily My children	

Table 5-6: Question 1, Focus Group 4

Focus Group 4		
Theme	**Post-its**	**Votes**
Sustaining the service	I volunteered mainly to keep the group running, as it was such a valuable group My daughter and I used the service. There was a risk of playgroup ending without volunteer support. Didn't want others to miss out either To help out with activities / groups that children would attend To ensure that groups such as youth clubs are available for young people to go to	6
Giving back	Nice to be able to input something back to a service we benefited from Time and giving value I enjoyed interacting with kids and seeing them grow and develop It was a social opportunity for me as well as my daughter	3
New experiences and personal development	New experiences x 2 To learn new skills, maybe with the thought that I might like to work with children as a job in the future To try job before I commit to it and to make sure groups continue Training – intervention – creative ideas with young people – ideas that I could take back for my family	2
Support and management (provider)	Having another professional adult to assist / supervise with me vs lack of confidence to manage on my own	1
Which negative can overcome all the positives?	Time / Time – prioritizing my personal life before giving to others Lack of support / Lack of support – lack of learning, feel done my bit	

Question 2: What are the barriers to you volunteering in work with young people?

Table 5-7: Question 2, Focus Group 1

Focus Group 1		
Theme	**Post-its**	**Votes**
Essentials	Work/life balance (other commitments) Time – work, family – a lack of time to be able to dedicate to activities Family life – work/life balance, health	4
Motivation	Motivation (burn out) Changing interests A feeling of having done as much as you can do	3
Non-essentials / desirables	Other volunteer commitments Work commitments / career	2
Changing circumstances	Organisational changes – venue and distance, timing, duration, workload Possibly moving away, not being around to contribute	
Which positive can overcome all the negatives?	Changes in attitudes / politics Change in social attitudes / politics The work of the charity	

Table 5-8: Question 2, Focus Group 2

Focus Group 2		
Theme	**'Post it' Responses**	**Votes**
Resources	Money Location Practicalities (e.g. childcare)	1
Time	Time x 4 Capacity x 2	5
Priorities	Priorities Other commitments Different priorities at present	1
Motivation	Motivation Energy Motivation: someone else's turn	3
Compromising values and beliefs	Certain rehab reasons (the people being volunteered with or the recipients of volunteering)	2
Which positive can overcome all the negatives?	Professional Outcomes Doesn't happen without you Reciprocity Being needed and respected – value and belief	

Table 5-9: Question 2, Focus Group 3

Focus Group 3		
Theme	**Post-its**	**Votes**
Health	Health – getting old! Illness x 3 health	
Family	My own children Stepped back from youth work when my own children were involved in groups Family / Family commitments / Family and home My own child's personal issues health	5
Time	Time Qualifications college exams	2
Work	Work Time to earn money Paid work if needed x 2	1
Self confidence	Self confidence	1
Drive	Drive (as in lost)	
Lack of opportunity	Lack of opportunity	
Which positive can overcome all the negatives?	To make a change x 2 Seeing people change for the better Seeing them growing and safe Seeing changed lives	

Table 5-10: Question 2, Focus Group 4

Focus Group 4		
Theme	**Post-its**	**Votes**
Lack of support	Feeling undervalued / taken for granted, excluded from decision making Not feeling that I am valued or giving value. Becoming redundant and routine. Not gaining new experience Frustration over the management / planning of the group Feeling not listened to or ideas incorporated. Feeling left out in decision making Lack of support – no training given Lack of support really, left with little direction weekly, planning could just say 'free play'. Therefore just get out some toys again. Lack of development within the role (not training bit input into activities) and the running of the group – no sense of ownership Felt let down by the Government. Only target families really now catered for by Surestart settings. Felt a bit used. Not really appreciated.	7
Time	Time is a big factor – lack of Time – fitting it around my other family commitments Lack of time	4
Isolated	Being the only volunteer at my group for a long time	1
Distance	Lack of transport	
Which positive can overcome all the negatives?	New experience Sustain the service / Sustain the service (for myself and others) Personal interaction / seeing the fun and joy (value?) everyone, including young people, get	

Question 3: What makes a good volunteering experience?

Table 5-11: Question 3, Focus Group 1

Focus Group 1		
Theme	**Post-its**	**Votes**
Environment	Good colleagues Nice people Supportive colleagues; respecting personal commitments, friendly, professionalism	3
Effective / Affective participation	An experience where you are making a positive contribution Opportunity to be heard Seeing the benefits of sharing / being involved in / contribution to a greater social good	3
Mission	An organisation whose motivations and actions are in the right place Working for a worthy cause	2
Skills & Learning	Good knowledge base / learning about the matters at hand Learning new skills / expanding one's horizon	1
Enjoyment and pressure	A fun and enjoyable experience Not too demanding	
Which bad characteristic can overcome all good the characteristics?	Awful colleagues No respect for boundaries Being taken advantage of	

Table 5-12: Question 3, Focus Group 2

Focus Group 2		
Theme	**'Post it' Responses**	**Votes**
Making a difference	Making a difference I made something happen that wouldn't have in my absence Building relationships Seeing an outcome Making a difference Building better relationships Seeing young people 'grow' See kids progress in life	6
Meeting own needs	Being valued Helping young people have opportunities I didn't	3
Motivation	Sharing a skill that they accept Positive feedback	1
Fun	Fun x 2 Satisfaction Did something new / exciting	2
Which bad characteristic can overcome all good the characteristics?	No Support Risk/Loss Not comfortable Detrimental	

Table 5-13: Question 3, Focus Group 3

Focus Group 3		
Theme	**Post-its**	**Votes**
Personal enjoyment	Being allowed the freedom to help Enjoyment Doing something I enjoy When I feel inspired	7
People	Friendly Friendships Nice people People you work with – TEAM Nice people to work with	5
Results ☺	Getting a cuddle from the children Seeing people happy Positive results Making a change Seeing progress / moving forward with people/projects People's success stories People thanking you	2
Support	Supportive Kind, caring Lots of love to share Supportive	1
Which bad characteristic can overcome all good the characteristics?	Frustration x 2 Feeling isolated x 2 Not being involved in the team	

Table 5-14: Question 3, Focus Group 4

Focus Group 4		
Theme	**Post-its**	**Votes**
Tangible feedback	Seeing the children happy and gaining something Feedback – watching others getting benefit from and returning to the service – from staff / other vols who value your presence Visible impact upon the service Feeling like you're doing something worthwhile Maintaining and developing a group – seeing progression of children Meeting new people and seeing them enjoying a group, wanting to come back weekly. Happy children.	5
Valued as a volunteer	Feeling valued and supported Feeling valued and seeing others enjoying a group Feeling part of a bigger picture – a part of the organisation Feeling valued and part of a team - support	4
Personal relationships	Social interactions Personal relationships developed with people	2
Personal Development	Gaining new experiences Chance for personal development Gaining new experiences and having personal development	1
Relevance and progression	Enjoying what you're doing - relevance	
Which bad characteristic can overcome all good the characteristics?	Emotional wellbeing Resourcing Not seeing the tangible feedback Hostile environment	

Question 4: What makes a bad volunteering experience?

Table 5-15: Question 4, Focus Group 1

Focus Group 1		
Theme	**Post-its**	**Votes**
Guidance, Training and Support	Lack of guidance / training Being put too far out of your depth Bad / unsupportive staff development / support (lack of)	3
Professionalism and consideration	Being taken advantage of Lack of professionalism in charity – chaos, unclear mission timing / responsibilities	2
People	People who are not very nice Horrible people / no fun Awful colleagues	2
Morale	Feeling like your actions make no difference Feeling redundant / worthless Hostile attitudes from those you are trying to help	2
Danger	Danger	
Which good characteristics can overcome all the bad characteristics?	Intrinsic motivation Knowing you've made a positive difference enjoyment	

Table 5-16: Question 4, Focus Group 2

Focus Group 2		
Theme	**'Post it' Responses**	**Votes**
Risk	Being unsupported with something serious Asked to deal with a situation I'm not comfortable with No support (understaffed) Being unprepared (under resourced) Badly planned - frustrating	6
Exclusion	Don't feel included Feeling lost, spare part / nothing to give No facilities Other adults	1
Detrimental	Aggressive / rude / horrible Personal loss / damage Personal loss outweigh gain / damage	3
Loss	Missing family Over runs on time	
Lack of recognition	Very ungrateful children No 'thank you's	2
Which good characteristics can overcome all the bad characteristics?	Make a difference Make and see a difference or outcome for young people Making a difference Fun	

Table 5-17: Question 4, Focus Group 3

Focus Group 3		
Theme	**Post-its**	**Votes**
Support This was really organisational support when it was discussed	Lack of support People – lack of help Lack of support Lack of organisation Lack of understanding from others People's lack of help	5
Being let down	Being let down Going back on word Being let down Being let down Being let down	3
Bad experience	Having to deal with very sad situations Having to deal with very sad situations	2
Lack of training / support	Vulnerable people (colleagues)	2
Sense of failure	Feeling like you have failed Being misunderstood Unable to help Feeling like you have failed	2
Unrealistic expectations	Feeling overwhelmed (when the job is too big!) Not enough evaluation (unrealistic)	1
Which good characteristics can overcome all the bad characteristics?	Friends People success storys Seeing people change and make a difference Support Seeing people happy	

Table 5-18: Question 4, Focus Group 4

Focus Group 4		
Theme	**Post-its**	**Votes**
Worthwhile	Negative feedback Numbers of people attending a group going down, not seeing what you do as being valued by people	4
Undervalued	Not feeling valued Lack of support Not being listened to Not valued Undervalued – staff ⇔ participants Lack of interest in you as a volunteer, lack of support Too much responsibility without support, not being listened to Lack of ownership, not feeling properly involved	3
Resourcing	Role not fully thought through – no work planned Boring, mundane, same	3
Emotional wellbeing	Hostile environment Unhappy working environment Being put into a compromising situation Unhappy feeling, staff not happy/stressed	2
Which good characteristics can overcome all the bad characteristics?	Feedback So seeing the tangible feedback Seeing good results, happy people attending a group Seeing a positive outcome -> children enjoying themselves	

5.3 Volunteer Functions Inventory

What follows is a discussion of each of the volunteer functions in relation to the responses of the participants in both the online survey and the focus groups. The functions are presented alphabetically and in no order of importance or relevance to volunteering in work with young people.

5.4 Career Function

The career function can be linked to the development of intellectual and social capital in that 'the volunteer has the goal of gaining career-related experience through volunteering' (Clary & Snyder, n.d., p.1). It is therefore a key function in relation to participants' lifelong learning in that through their volunteering adults can learn about different careers, learn about their capacity and aptitude for different roles or work in different sectors. Volunteers can also learn about the work of the organisation, which is also related to the understanding function.

There are three principal career-related themes discussed in this section. Participants identified that their volunteering in work with young people was:

1. sometimes initially career related;
2. or, an opportunity to gain transferrable skills including benefitting their current career and contributing to their future career;
3. or, not linked to their career.

5.4.1 VFI: Career

The respondents to the online survey were likely to agree that volunteering could contribute to attaining career related outcomes. However, this was not a universal view and the most 'agreed with' question, Q.28 '*Volunteering experience will look good on my resume*', only achieved 68% agreement (n=85).

Table 5-19: VFI Questions related to the career function

Career Functions	Value	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Missing Values
1. Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work	Count	60	25	40	0
	Percent	48.0%	20.0%	32.0%	0.0%
10. I can make new contacts that might help my business or career	Count	62	26	37	0
	Percent	49.6%	20.8%	29.6%	0.0%
15. Volunteering allows me to explore different career options	Count	64	28	32	1
	Percent	51.2%	22.4%	25.6%	0.8%
21. Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession	Count	56	32	36	1
	Percent	44.8%	25.6%	28.8%	0.8%
28. Volunteering experience will look good on my resume	Count	85	28	11	1
	Percent	68.0%	22.4%	8.8%	0.8%

As with each of the six volunteer functions, two questions, Q.O1 and Q.O7, explore the career outcomes of volunteering in work with young people. These can be directly compared to the other questions which explore possible career outcomes from volunteering generally. Just over 40% of respondents agreed with the questions related to the outcomes from their volunteering, Table as illustrated 5-20.

Table 5-20: VFI Questions related to career outcomes

Career Outcomes	Value	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Missing Values
O1. In volunteering in work with young people I made new contacts that might help my business or career	Count	52	27	40	6
	Percent	41.6%	21.6%	32.0%	4.8%
O7. As a volunteer working with young people, I have been able to explore possible career options	Count	54	24	40	7
	Percent	43.2%	19.2%	32.0%	5.6%

5.4.2 Career motivations

Finkelstein (2009) characterises volunteering to achieve career ambitions as an extrinsic motivation. There were 13 references to volunteering having been important to respondents' career outcomes in the open comments with one participant stating: 'three previous paid jobs have resulted from volunteering' (EdD109, F, 55-59, Q.1). As was discussed in section 4.1.10, of the participants who were currently volunteering, 21% (n=29) had been volunteering for 16 years or more and 13% (n=18) for between 5-10 years. It is not surprising, therefore, that their initial objectives had been met. As some respondents were specific that their volunteering had led to paid work it suggests that for them, volunteering in work with young people may have contributed to their social mobility through enhancing their employment outcomes (Crawford *et al.*, 2011). However, this is not true of all participants and without a deeper understanding of the volunteers' social status and employment prospects before they started their volunteering it is impossible to make claims of greater impact, though this would be an interesting topic for further research.

Whilst there is a cohort of participants for whom a career related motivation initially prompted them to volunteer in work with young people, there were 16 mentions of a change in volunteering motivation. This demonstrates how volunteers' initial motivations and ongoing motivations can be different and that volunteers may have multiple motivations over their lifetime:

> 'In the beginning when I started volunteer it was to further my career and work with young people, but now I volunteer to give back to the community' (EdD027, 35–39, Male, QO.1)

This important finding has implications for volunteering policy and management, but also with regard to the way in which we foster volunteer cultures over individuals' lifetimes. If we aim to nurture lifelong volunteers in support of lifelong learning, then it is important that we identify, monitor and review volunteers' changing motivations. Whilst there are resource implications for organisations relying on volunteers, the cost of not investing in volunteers will have greater implications.

Perhaps the greatest challenge for any organisation relying on volunteers to deliver their services is to recognise when a volunteer may need to move on in order to meet their new objectives. It is a mistake to try to hold on to volunteers beyond this point as the volunteer will not be retained indefinitely. This may breed frustration on behalf of the volunteer and ultimately not address the staffing gap that they create when they ultimately leave:

> **Jackie:** I do feel guilty about leaving.
> **Lisa:** It's because you know there is no one else that has come forward, you feel like you ought to stay and then there is a risk that you may stay longer than you actually enjoy and then you are not giving as much (focus group 4).

Furthermore, a negative experience of leaving a volunteer role may adversely impact on individuals' willingness to volunteer in the future, which is not good for the organisations which rely on them (Bales, 1996) and may result in the organisation developing a negative reputation for volunteer support. Volunteer progression therefore needs to be managed effectively, for the benefit of both volunteers and organisations. This indicates that, as Bartels et al (2013) argue, a sustained, collaborative approach is needed. One participant had a negative experience of such a process illustrating that effective coordination is needed to match volunteers and their motivations to an organisation and its staffing gap:

> **Francis:** I went to the [[organisation]], like trying to get back into work, and they said about voluntary work and the only voluntary work that they're actually pushing towards was working in a charity shop. Now that's not for a lot of people (focus group 3).

The participants in focus group 3 also discussed this issue from the perspective of volunteers and leaders looking for new recruits:

> **Hilary:** And from the point of view of these things it would be really good it there was some way of knowing that these people – that there is this group of people – that are suitable volunteers that we can then call on.
> **Georgia:** that you can call upon and say come and help – this would be perfect for you.
> **Hilary:** like a lot of the people who we meet and come into contact with say 'we'd like to do that', but you know that actually they would never get through their DBS check or whatever so they can't do it. So, some way of having, of having a pool of volunteers.
> **Georgia:** Like a bank of people and you can kind of go 'we're doing this today – come along'.
> **Hilary:** these people are looking for opportunities that you can then [yeah] almost … [so it's kind of like a dating agency…] Yeah. So, something, I don't really know what the volunteer bureau does …
> **Francis:** I've had a bit of experience with [[learning organisation]] and have to admit that what they had, wasn't that wonderful with it, but then that might be because they left things quite last minute so I don't know whether we've had people like, when they've volunteered for the charter days and stuff, the pairing didn't quite match.
> They're just turning up on the day and not knowing …
> **Hilary:** So, whether you have like some sort, like some sort of dating agency where you've got these people come together and they're interested in volunteering and we need a volunteer and, or they could come and talk to you and …
> **Francis:** That could be better … like we could do a big event for people who might like to volunteer, and you have the charities – like a job fair!
> **Hilary:** Like a job fair but a volunteer fair!
> **Deborah:** Brilliant! That's a really good idea!

The biggest group of survey respondents agreed with the career outcomes questions (Q.O1 and QO.7), though they constituted just over 40%. The same number and percentage disagreed with both questions (n=40, 32%). This may be because these volunteers are not volunteering with an aim to change careers but also, due to the funding cuts discussed in Chapter 2, there are very few new jobs in the sector even if volunteers want to transition into one.

Another factor effecting the career function is that as charities have assumed greater responsibility for the provision of services formerly provided by the government (Bales, 1996), certain volunteering roles have become more skilled and competitive. This has resulted in organisations looking for volunteers with specific expertise as opposed to opening up opportunities for volunteers to develop experience:

> Most volunteer roles I've had … tend(ed) to seek those with experience rather than those seeking to build learning (EdD123, 30 – 34, Female, Q.18).

For roles such as trustees, organisations may be looking for individuals with the capitals that they can exploit in the interest of their cause. Whilst this may seem reasonable, it is at the cost of creating opportunities across organisations that support volunteers from all backgrounds and experiences. This approach fails to address the criteria of a panacea (Baines and Hardill, 2008), perpetuates cultural reproduction (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1990) and fails to capitalise on the benefits that diversity across an organisation can bring (Lee *et al.*, 2017).

Fewer respondents felt that volunteering in work with young people allowed them to explore possible career options (Q.07: n=54, 43.2%) than volunteering might generally promote (Q.15: n=64, 51.2%). The answer to Q.O7 is specific to the volunteers' own motivation and outcomes whereas Q.15 asks respondents to consider volunteering generally. If participants did not volunteer to change their career or gain access to a career in work with young people, it is unlikely that they would capitalise on the opportunities that might be available to them.

For the respondents to the online survey there was more of a relationship between volunteering in work with young people and the career function than for the participants in the focus groups. This may be due to the prescriptive questions in the survey. Whereas, the meta-planning process (Matheson and Matheson, 2009) employed in the focus groups allowed participants to discuss their volunteering beyond the constraints of the six functions identified by Clary et al. (1998). As one respondent to the survey reflected:

> It's unfortunate that this type of questionnaire does not fully allow for the flows and challenges that can lead to volunteering being experienced in positive and negative ways that have the ability to almost overlap (EdD106, 50 – 54, Female, Final Question).

As is the case for all the functions, it is important for volunteers to recognise or identify that a career or employability outcome is important to them (Dewey, 1998; Duguid, Mundel and Schugurensky, 2013) in order for them to capitalise upon the opportunities that volunteering can offer. This is important as volunteers identified that their choice of organisation might impact upon their prospects: 'The [[organisation]] is not a big employer and is not a reason to volunteer with them (EdD045, 35 – 39, Male, Q.1). However, if this respondent had recognised the skills that they were acquiring were transferrable to other settings, their response may have been different. This will be discussed further in the following section.

5.4.3 Gaining Transferrable skills

Survey respondents identified that they could gain a range of soft or transferrable skills from their volunteering, which contributes to their lifelong learning (Livingstone, 2010) and an alignment with a more complex definition of employability drawing upon a range of skills, values and attributes rather than a career focus (Cole and Tibby, 2013). This indicates a need to consider adults' lifelong learning and employability differently to traditional notions of careers outcomes which might be centred around the needs and experiences of those entering the job market. As one respondent expressed: 'volunteer experience goes above and beyond professional development; the growth and learning is holistic, and therefore benefits all aspects of my life' (EdD002, F, 20-24, Q.21). This implies that the functions identified by Clary et al. (1998) are not as clearly delineated as suggested and highlights that career motivations may be related to or linked to other functions.

When considered within a frame of creating a culture (Thompson, 2012) which fosters volunteering, how adults articulate their reasons for volunteering and the values that they place upon this work may be interpreted by the other volunteers and young people that they come into contact with (Sapin, 2013b). As discussed in Chapter 2, flagship Government projects such as the NCS are aimed at developing social action and a volunteer culture in the next generation rather than simply focusing on employability. However, the adults that engage with young people on the NCS are mostly paid (National Citizen Service, 2018) and trained in the importance of articulating the functions of volunteering for young people as opposed to modelling and demonstrating the value of volunteering at different points in one's life stage.

Whilst not all volunteers are giving their time in order to gain employability or career outcomes, 68.0% (n=85) of the respondents agreed with Q.28 '*Volunteering experience will look good on my resume*'. This is a generic question but worth volunteer recruiters and managers in work with young people keeping in mind. This question was also answered most favourably of all the questions related to the careers function. The open comments allowed respondents to explore the range of soft or transferrable skills that they could gain from their participation: 'This may seem attractive to a potential employer, and there would definitely be applicable transferable skills, but no benefit in regards to qualifications' (EdD034, M, 25-29, Q.1).

As discussed in Chapter 1, my initial motivation to undertake this research came from meeting a group whilst delivering a Level 2 certificate in Working with Young People. At this time formal training opportunities were available for volunteers at levels 1, 2 and 3; often provided by the Local Authority or infrastructure organisation, an association in the voluntary and community sector established to support groups within the geographical area it covered. Many of these have closed since 2010 as a result of changes in Government policy and funding (Hillier, 2015). Local Authority training budgets have been reduced (Terry and Mansfield, 2016) which will have also reduced opportunities for volunteers and undermine the fact that 'learning is part of the contract between the organisation and the volunteer' (McCabe, 1997, p. 18). This will limit the learning opportunities and therefore the long-term benefits to volunteers, as discussed in section 5.8.

5.4.4 Benefits to current career

Both focus group 1 and 2 identified career outcomes as being important, particularly in relationship to their paid employment. In focus group 2, Daniel, Betty and Alison all had careers which involved young people, such as teaching in a secondary school. In focus group 1, Charles taught subjects in Higher Education which were aligned to his volunteering. Their volunteering added value to their work lives as opposed to volunteering being a method to enter into work. Whilst some participants did not see any direct link to their 'day job', they could perceive that the two complemented each other:

> **Charles:** 'making a direct impact on people's lives in contrast to the day job, in a way you're sort of complementing the day job to a certain degree.' (focus group 1).

The value that volunteering can add to an individual's 'day job' is not recognised by the volunteering literature discussed in Chapter 2. It is at a deficit to our understanding of the value of volunteering to society more broadly that this occurs, as it fails to acknowledge that an organisation may benefit from the social, emotional and intellectual capitals (Gratton and Ghoshal, 2003) their staff develop through their voluntary activity. Where the VFI questions relate to current employment, it is in respect to developing contacts (Q.10), but survey respondents identified a range of transferrable skills which are typified by the following comment: 'It develops key professional skills such as teamwork, leadership and perseverance' (EdD044, 16 – 19, Female Q.21). As with all functions, capitalising on these opportunities needs a commitment to creating spaces for volunteers to reflect on their learning (Duguid, Mundel and Schugurensky, 2013) and its transferability to all areas of their lives.

5.4.5 Future career benefits

A third set of participants identified that there was the possibility of gaining paid work from their volunteering, though this was not guaranteed. The skills they were gaining were hoped to be transferrable to future careers. None of the survey respondents articulated this as a facet of their volunteering, though this may be a limitation of the questions.

Both survey respondents and focus group participants found the idea of benefitting from their volunteering a problematic notion. One respondent to the survey stated that is was '(n)ot a factor though would not disapprove of people who did (EdD082, M, 60-64, Q.1), suggesting that they felt that some might criticise this motivation. The participants of focus group 3 held differing viewpoints:

> **Deborah:** No, you don't do it for self-improvement.
> **Hilary:** It happens but …
> **Deborah:** but it's the last thing that I done it for
> **Francis:** I like the reward that you get from it but it's not why you go and do it
> **Deborah:** no – that's it!
> **Hilary:** coz sometimes it's just really hard work
> **Georgia:** you see I'm different because I do it because I want to, for self-improvement
> **Deborah:** And that's brilliant! I think that's absolutely brilliant cause if we were all the same
> **Georgia:** Cause I want to go and work in it – I want to go deeper into it.
> **Deborah:** and so, you've got a vision
> **Georgia:** for me there's a reason
> **Deborah:** yeah
> **Georgia:** and for me it's not because the others are any less – it's just that for me that's kinda why I'm doing it. For my future and to help others.
> **Deborah:** yeah

This quote is also evidence of the social and values functions but Georgia, a very new volunteer in the project, identifies that her volunteering is linked to future career prospects. In this group Georgia had the highest level of qualifications and articulated a future with paid work whereas all other participants identified themselves as full-time volunteers. This is not to be judgemental regarding these life-long volunteers, but to be critical of the idea that volunteering is a gateway to paid work. For the volunteers in focus group 3 and for some of those in focus group 4, they would not parlay their voluntary role in to paid employment. For Isobel and Lisa in focus group 4, their volunteering was undertaken whilst they were caring for their children and there was a sense that they would be looking for paid employment in the future. The impact of their volunteering in securing a position was unclear, as they were unsure of their next steps.

As stated previously, there has been a reduction in budgets impacting paid positions in the sector even if volunteers wish to secure one (The National Youth Agency, 2017). Whilst values will be explored more fully in section 5.9, this theme highlights an ethical dilemma for the field. As VCS organisations have assumed greater responsibilities for the provision of public services they have also increasingly relied upon volunteers to meet their commitments (Bales, 1996). In order to recruit sufficient numbers of volunteers, recruiters and organisations have, in many cases fairly, identified the benefits of volunteering to the volunteers, as discussed in Chapter 2. The dilemma to be considered is that not every volunteering opportunity or organisation is the same and the outcomes for volunteers will depend on various factors. Unfortunately, the way the benefits of volunteering is articulated has become standardised. The panacea theory (Baines and Hardill, 2008) has taken hold, and these outcomes are taken for granted. In reality, without planning (Dewey, 1998) and reflection (Duguid, Mundel and Schugurensky, 2013) the outcomes for volunteers may, at best, be serendipitous. In the field of work with young people, where there is currently limited opportunity to move into paid employment, we may be unethically capitalising upon hope labour (Kuehn and Corrigan, 2013) to recruit volunteers.

5.4.6 No career function

Challenging much of the literature discussed in Chapter 2, the responses from the participants in the survey illustrate that whilst the biggest individual group agreed that '*Volunteering could help them get a foot in the door at a place that they would like to work*' (Q.1), over half of the respondents neither agreed nor disagreed, or disagreed (n=65, 52.0%) with this question. For many of the survey respondents career outcomes were not a goal, though they agreed with this as a possible outcome of volunteering generally: "for some volunteers this is true - but not in my case" (EdD017, F, 45-49, Q.1). This is different to the objections that respondents had to the enhancement and protective functions, which will be discussed in section 5.5 and 5.6, as participants generally agreed that volunteering could and should benefit individuals' career prospects even if that was not their motivation.

Q.10 '*I can make new contacts that might help my business or career*' asks respondents about their opinions regarding volunteering generally whereas, Q.O1 '*In volunteering in work with young people I made new contacts that might help my career or business*' specifically regarding their own volunteering in work with young people. The responses given to both questions were fairly similar, with regard to neither agreeing nor disagreeing (Q.10, n=26, 20.8%, Q.O1, n=27, 21.6%).

However, survey participants were slightly less likely to agree that they were able to make new contacts for their career in work with young people (Q10: n=63, 50.4%) than volunteering generally (Q.O1: n=67, 53.6%). This suggests that for those who want a career in work with young people their volunteering is helpful, but that this kind of volunteering does not facilitate the meeting of relevant new contacts that might help careers outside of the field. In volunteering in work with young people, particularly if volunteers are undertaking face-to-face work, they are engaging with people who do not have the capitals to support volunteers to make new contacts.

Furthermore, as a result of a reduction in paid, qualified staff, there are not enough people to support volunteers to access opportunities and capitalise on their volunteering:

> **Isobel:** Yes so that kind of explains why I am stopping here, I mean having another professional to assist, I mean I have experience from when the children's centre was well funded and we had more staff and we could learn from them (focus group 4).

This challenges the crowding out theory (Bartels, Cozzi and Mantovan, 2013) in that participants expressed the need for access to professionals in order to support them to learn new skills, identify the range of skills that they are developing and see their transferability into other settings. This will be discussed further in section 5.7.

5.4.7 Career Function: Conclusions

This section has illustrated that the career function was a motivating factor for some of the respondents to the VFI and focus group participants, but not all. There were three main career related themes explored in this section. These were that volunteering in work with young people was:

1. sometimes initially career related;
2. an opportunity to gain transferrable skills including benefitting their current career and contributing to their future career;
3. not linked to their career.

5.5 Enhancement Function

Clary and Snyder identify that individual's volunteering has an enhancement function when it facilitates individuals to 'grow and develop psychologically through volunteer activities' (Clary and Snyder, 1999, p.157). This function therefore contributes to the development of an individual's emotional capital. The enhancement function is related to lifelong learning in that through their volunteering, adults can learn about themselves and the young people that they work with.

There are three main enhancement related themes explored in this section. Participants identified that their volunteering in work with young people:

1. had an enhancement function, though for some enhancement was a controversial idea in volunteering in work with young people;
2. needed balance between feeling valued, needed and over-burdened;
3. is fun.

5.5.1 VFI: Enhancement

The respondents to the online survey generally agreed that volunteering could support enhancement related outcomes. However, this was not an uncontroversial function as illustrated by participants responses to Q.5 'Volunteering makes me feel important' which only achieved a 48% agreement (n=60).

Table 5-21: VFI Questions related to the enhancement function

Enhancement Function	Value	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Missing Values
5. Volunteering makes me feel important	Count	60	25	39	1
	Percent	48.0%	20.0%	31.2%	0.8%
13. Volunteering increases my self-esteem	Count	98	20	7	0
	Percent	78.4%	16.0%	5.6%	0.0%
26. Volunteering makes me feel needed	Count	77	27	19	2
	Percent	61.6%	21.6%	15.2%	1.6%
27. Volunteering makes me feel better about myself	Count	88	25	10	2
	Percent	70.4%	20.0%	8.0%	1.6%
29. Volunteering is a way to make new friends	Count	104	18	2	1
	Percent	83.2%	14.4%	1.6%	0.8%

As with each of the functions two questions, Q.O4 and Q.O10, explored the enhancement outcomes of volunteering in work with young people compared to the previous questions which explored the enhancement functions from volunteering generally.

Table 5-22: VFI Questions related to the enhancement function – outcomes

Enhancement Outcomes	Value	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Missing Values
O4. From volunteering to work with young people, I feel better about myself	Count	80	32	6	7
	Percent	64.0%	25.60%	4.8%	5.6%
O10. My self-esteem is enhanced by performing volunteer work	Count	84	24	9	8
	Percent	67.2%	19.20%	7.2%	6.4%

5.5.2 Enhancement motivations

The survey respondents tended to agree that volunteering generally had an enhancement function but were less likely to agree that volunteering in work with young people enhanced their lives. The greatest number of respondents were in agreement with every question. The least of these was Q.5 (n=60, 48%) but this is not necessarily surprising as whilst this question is about volunteering generally there may be some legacy from volunteering in work with young people in which putting your own needs before those of the young people would be considered deeply inappropriate (Buchroth and Parkin, 2010). However, focus group 2 highlighted that volunteering made them feel important, with one participant acknowledging that volunteering in work with young people was seen as 'an admirable use of (their) time by others' (Table 5-4).

Q.29 '*volunteering is a way to make new friends*', is also closely linked with the social function and the participants responded to this very positively (n=104, 83.2%). This is appropriate for volunteering generally but, in work with young people, adults should be spending most of their time with the young people depending upon the role that they are undertaking and it is not appropriate for adults to make friends with the young people that they volunteer with (Sapin, 2013b).

Whilst it was a comment in relation to a career-related question one respondent reported that volunteering in work with young people 'Builds self-confidence' (EdD052, 40 – 44, Male, Q.21). This reinforces Clary et al's claim that 'in contrast to the protective function's concern with eliminating negative aspects surrounding the ego, the enhancement function involves a motivational process that centres on the ego's growth and development' (1998, p.1518).

This was reinforced by discussions in focus group 3, as well as reinforcing the importance of colleagues and the culture of the context in which the volunteering is taking place:

> **Francis:** 'that's the lovely thing about volunteering. Its people can see your strong points you can't necessarily see in yourself'.

This also highlights the social nature of learning (Wenger, 1998) and therefore the importance of others, and perhaps professionals in particular (Lave and Wenger, 1991), in supporting individuals to reflect upon their volunteer experience. This will be explored further in section 5.7.

5.5.2.1 Enhancement controversy

This research is concerned with work with young people that is underpinned, informed or aligned to the ethical principles of youth work (National Youth Agency, 2004). When aligned to the notions of altruism (Andreoni, 1990) and pro-social characteristics (Carlo *et al.*, 2005), often synonymous with volunteering, it is perhaps unsurprising that some participants in this research had issues with some of the terminology being used. This is due the power differentials between adult and young person (Sapin, 2013a), and because the young people accessing youth projects may be considered vulnerable. As a result, there are policies and processes in place to promote professional behaviours and the participants generally illustrated a good understanding of the importance of focusing on the needs of young people before their own: 'I hope my intention is sincere and it is not about me but about the people I help' (EdD027, 35 – 39, Male, Q.5).

Focus group 1 identified 'personal fulfilment' (Table 5-3) as something that motivates them to volunteer in work with young people. They clarified this a 'not having children of our own', illustrating how individualised motivations can be. Whether participants had children was not asked and so how far this motivation is shared by other contributors is hard to ascertain. However, some participants identified that they were parents of children in the project in section 4.1.11 in relation to volunteer recruitment.

Respondents agreed very strongly with Q.13 '*Volunteering increases my self-esteem*' (n=98, 78.4%) but less strongly with Q.O10 '*My self-esteem is enhanced by performing volunteer work*' (n=84, 67.2%). Whilst the enhancement outcomes from volunteering in work with young people are lesser than volunteering generally, it is still positive that over 60% of respondents agreed with both questions. This is important to note when promoting volunteering in work with young people and again contradicts the negative perceptions of young people that is prevalent in the media (Kehily, 2013).

64% of respondents agreed with Q.O4 '*From volunteering to work with young people, I feel better about myself*' compared to 70.4% who agreed with Q.27 *Volunteering makes me feel better about myself*'. Whilst this is evidence that for respondents to the survey volunteering generally was more impactful on volunteer's enhancement than volunteering in work with young people, the latter still had a positive impact on the greatest number of respondents. One respondent simply wrote 'Wounded healer' (EdD088, 45 – 49, Female) in response to Q.O4 which is a phrase attributed to psychologist Carl Jung (Zerubavel and Wright, 2012) to denote someone, such as an analyst, who treats patients because they themselves are wounded and need treatment. This was discussed in one of the focus groups;

> 'Support young people who need it. And what I am saying is that I was a young person who didn't get it, so I want to make sure it happens' (**Alison**, focus group 2).

In work with young people this is not necessarily a problem as long as boundaries are not crossed (Sercombe, 2010), and the worker or volunteer does not try to heal themselves through their work with young people. This will be discussed further in section 5.9 with respect to the values function.

In response to Q27. '*Volunteering makes me feel better about myself*' one respondent commented 'although not if it's my only option...I also need paid employment' (EdD035, 45 – 49, Male). This demonstrates that volunteering may not be a panacea (Baines and Hardill, 2008) for the unemployed but rather that volunteering can have an enhancement function which adds value to individuals' lives when all core priorities, such as having paid work, are met. For other participants, their volunteering may also have a protective function which helps them to minimise the negative impacts of unemployment.

The respondents who were unhappy with some of the terminology used in the enhancement related questions suggested other ways to articulate their feelings: 'Important the wrong word. It makes me feel valued/appreciated' (EdD113, 40 – 44, Female, Q.5). Furthermore, four respondents articulated a sense of 'satisfaction' in their work. This related to individuals being able to see that they were making a valuable contribution through their volunteering 'I made something happen that if I wasn't there it wouldn't have happened basically' (**Caroline**, focus group 2). This supports Bartels et al's (2013) view that when there is strong infrastructure in place people felt that they were contributing to something that was worthwhile, something that was likely to continue and that they were adding value to.

As with previous themes, some individuals may need help, through training or professional supervision, to be able to identify where they have made a positive difference. This was discussed in detail by focus group 3 (Table 5-6; Table 5-10; Table 5-14, Table 5-18) though this was perhaps unsurprising as three of the four participants were stopping their volunteering at a children's centre precisely due to the lack of perceived support. However, this was also discussed by focus group 1 (Table 5-15) and focus group 3 (Table 5-17).

5.5.3 Finding balance

In spite of some aspects of the enhancement function being controversial, section 5.5.2 illustrates that volunteering in work with young people had a positive impact on volunteers' lives. However, participants identified that there was a balance to be struck between feeling needed and feeling under pressure to volunteer.

Q.26 '*Volunteering makes me feel needed*' had the largest number of respondents who neither agreed nor disagreed (n=27, 21.6%). Volunteers may feel under pressure if they feel needed as opposed to feeling wanted as one respondent clarified; 'I did not volunteer to feel needed, but once I volunteered, there were times that I was needed. Just more in terms of practicality and staffing' (EdD119, 35 – 39, Male, Q.26). As Charles states:

> it's trying to strike that balance *erm* and at the moment it's all kind of working fantastically but I am very aware that time *erm* I've had to learn to say no to a lot of things whereas previously I wouldn't (focus group 1).

Not only is this important for the wellbeing of individual volunteers, but with volunteers' time being finite and with other calls on their free time, as will be discussed in section 5.7, it is important that organisations which rely on volunteers consider this need for balance. Not only do workers who are paid have an ethical duty to consider how they employ volunteers, but they also have a duty to their service users to ensure that the projects that they may rely on stay open:

> **Jackie:** I have done breastfeeding peer support as a volunteer but have stopped this because it was too much commitment (focus group 4).

5.5.4 Young people are fun

As discussed in Chapter 2, the literature regarding volunteering focuses on motivation theories and the tangible outcomes for volunteers. However, the literature misses something that comes through powerfully in this research, particularly in the focus groups: volunteering in work with young people is fun. This is particularly important as it challenges the negative perspectives of young people as a result of the constant media moral panics surrounding them (Kehily, 2013). Furthermore, it evidences that volunteering in work with young people is a positive way to spend free time in and of itself without any need for a more significant outcome.

'Enjoyment and pleasure' were a facet of a good volunteering experience for focus group 1. This, they said, meant that it should be 'a fun and enjoyable experience' and 'not too demanding'. One member of this group also identified 'enjoyment' as the good thing which would overcome any bad enabling them to continue volunteering:

> **Ben:** it's nice to work with fun people *erm* who can be quite inspiring (focus group 1).

Focus group 3, identified that 'self-improvement' was a motivational factor in their volunteering in work with young people which included, 'because I enjoy it!' (Table 5-5). 'Personal enjoyment' was also the number one thing that focus group 3 identified as making a good volunteering experience (Table 5-13).

The level of fun involved in volunteering was perceived to be impacted upon by the role that they were performing: 'Most of my volunteering is about governance of an organisation - it's not a lot fun much of the time' (EdD099, 55 – 59, Male, Q.O3). This may have implications for volunteer recruitment to different roles which might compound volunteers' individual characteristics, making them feel unable to perform certain roles or more inclined towards certain ways of working. For instance, if women do have different traits or motivations to men (Einolf, 2011) then they may be more inclined to volunteer in face to face roles than trustee positions. They may have more fun as a result but may not benefit from the new learning opportunities that volunteering in other roles might provide.

The analysis of the survey responses and the focus group discussions make it clear that there are a range of factors which motivate participants to volunteer. However, it cannot be a bad thing that so many volunteers enjoy their time with young people, enabling organisations to retain volunteers as well as potentially allowing individuals to maximise their learning from the experience.

5.5.5 Enhancement Function: Conclusions

This section has illustrated that the enhancement function was a motivation for some of the respondents to the VFI and focus group participants, but not all. There were three main enhancement related themes explored in this section. These were that volunteering in work with young people:

1. has an enhancement function, though for some enhancement was a controversial idea in volunteering in work with young people;
2. volunteers needed balance between feeling valued, needed and over-burdened;
3. is fun.

5.6 Protective Function

Clary and Snyder argue that individuals' motivations to volunteer has a protective function in order 'to reduce negative feelings, such as guilt, or to address personal problems' (1999, p.157). The protective function is related to lifelong learning in a similar way to that of the enhancement function in that that through their volunteering adults can learn about themselves and the young people that they work with. It can also be linked to development of emotional capital as volunteers develop courage and resilience (Gratton & Ghoshal, 2003, p.2).

There are three main protective related themes explored in this section. Participants identified that their volunteering in work with young people:

1. has limited protective functions, and this a controversial notion;
2. was a way for volunteers to share their 'capitals';
3. supported them to address deficits in their own youth.

5.6.1 VFI: Protective

The questions related to the Protective function were the most controversial across the six functions and most likely to be disagreed with. The most disagreed with question was Q.11 '*Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others*' with 79 respondents (63.2%) disagreeing.

Table 5-23: VFI Questions related to the protective function

Protective Functions	Value	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Missing Values
7. No matter how bad I've been feeling volunteering helps me to forget about it	Count	68	33	23	1
	Percent	54.4%	26.4%	18.4%	0.8%
9. By volunteering I feel less lonely	Count	45	39	41	0
	Percent	36.0%	31.2%	32.8%	0.0%
11. Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others	Count	22	24	79	0
	Percent	17.6%	19.2%	63.2%	0.0%
20. Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems	Count	34	33	57	1
	Percent	27.2%	26.4%	45.6%	0.8%
24. Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles	Count	39	33	51	2
	Percent	31.2%	26.4%	40.8%	1.6%

As with each of the functions two questions, Q.O5 and Q.O11, explored the protective outcomes of volunteering in work with young people compared to the other questions which explored the protective outcomes from volunteering generally.

Table 5-24: Protective Outcomes from volunteering in work with young people

Protective Outcomes	Value	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Missing Values
O5. Work with young people allows me the opportunity to escape some of my own troubles	Count	34	36	48	7
	Percent	27.2%	28.8%	38.4%	5.6%
O11. By volunteering to work with young people, I have been able to work through some of my own personal problems	Count	26	40	52	7
	Percent	20.8%	32.0%	41.6%	5.6%

5.6.2 Protective motivations

Whilst the questions relate to volunteering generally, the largest set of respondents disagreed with both Q.20 '*Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems*' (n=57, 45.6%) and Q.24 '*Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles*' (n=51, 40.8%). The open comment responses allow participants to explain their responses: 'If I did have more personal problems then would be agree' (Q.20, EdD092, 40 – 44, Male) and 'Would be if I had significant troubles' (Q.24, EdD092, 40 – 44, Male). This illustrates that for these volunteers, in principal, the protective function is not taboo.

One respondent illustrated how Q.20 also aligns to the enhancement function: 'It has helped my confidence and self-esteem' (EdD080, 20 – 24, Female). This individual identifies the emotional capital that they have developed through their volunteering (Duguid, Mundel and Schugurensky, 2013) which is important when reflecting critically on the VFI questions and the relevance of the 6 functional areas. Firstly, whilst the protective function is the most contested of the areas for survey respondents, the use of open comments has allowed them to reflect upon the questions in a reflexive manner. Secondly, the functions are presented as being clearly delineated (Clary *et al.*, 1998) which fails to foster a critical reflection on the functions interrelatedness, which is apparent across those already discussed.

5.6.3 Protective controversy

Just as with the enhancement function, the terminology used in the questions related to the protective function was controversial among respondents. In fact, the protective function was the most controversial function of the six. The question that was most strongly agreed with was Q.7 '*No matter how bad I've been feeling volunteering helps me to forget about it*' (n=68, 54.4%). Of the eight open responses, three respondents clarified that their volunteering took their mind off any issues they had whereas two respondents identified that sometimes it added to their stress.

The respondents were split by Q.9 '*By volunteering I feel less lonely*'. This is interesting in relation to Q.29 where 83.2% (n=104) of respondents felt that '*Volunteering is a way to make new friends*' and therefore Q.9 can also be aligned to the social function. The respondents open comments suggest that individuals' main reason for either agreeing nor disagreeing, or disagreeing with the question is based upon an issue with the term 'lonely' which can be typified by the following response: 'I don't generally feel lonely but it is true I have more social connections as a result of volunteering' (EdD021, 40 – 44, Female).

The largest group of respondents across the protective function related questions were the group who disagreed with Q.11 '*Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others*' (n=79, 63.2%) again there were some strong comments made about this question by the respondents and only Q.1 and Q.2 received more open comments with one set of respondents being very clear that 'guilt' is not an appropriate term: 'Loaded question maybe but I don't do guilt' (EdD099, 55 – 59, Male).

There was a similar percentage of respondents who disagree with both Q.24 '*Volunteering is a good escape from my troubles*' 40.8% (n=51) and Q.O5 '*Work with young people allows me the opportunity to escape some of my own troubles*' 38.4% (n=48). However, there were fewer respondents agreed with Q.O5 (n=34, 27.2% compared to n=39, 31.2%) but, there were 5 fewer respondents to Q.O5 than Q.24 which is the exact different in the response rate and an increase of 3.7% in those neither agreed nor disagreed. This suggests a difference of opinion as to whether work with young people can or should be an escape from an individual's own troubles. As one respondent explained:

> If I had problems, personally, I would not use volunteering as an escape. Depending on the type of volunteering, this could have a negative impact upon the volunteer and service users (EdD119, M, 35-39, Q.24).

There was less disagreement with QO.11 '*By volunteering to work with young people, I have been able to work through my own personal problems*' (n=52, 41.6%) than with the general question Q.20 '*Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems*' (n=57, 45.6%) which is interesting given the points made above. There was also a reduction in positive responses (QO11, n=26, 20.8%; Q20, n=34, 27.2%) so whilst respondents did not express a positive opinion, they were less certain. It is likely that the type of volunteering being undertaken plays a part in this confusion. As discussed in Chapter 2, the perception of young people being challenging (Kehily, 2013) may suggest that volunteering in the sector may add to an individual's challenges rather than eliminate them: 'It is additional work, so although I get something out of it, I do not see it as an escape' (EdD021, 40 – 44, Female, Q.24). However, for some individuals the client group is the draw: 'Young people have range of needs to put any problems into perspective' (EdD092, 40 – 44, Male, Q.7).

The protective function is particularly interesting given the nature of work with young people and the professional ethics and values articulated by the organisations into which people volunteer (National Youth Agency, 2004; Girlguiding UK, 2018). However, this is also a problematic idea in work with young people where our professional focus is on young people's wellbeing and those who work with them are expected to be conscious of their use of power (Sercombe, 2010) and to put young people's needs first (Sapin, 2013b). In fact, adults putting their own emotional needs before the young people's would be considered bad practice (Sapin, 2013b). Nonetheless, these questions were left in for two reasons. Firstly, as Clary and Snyder (1999) identified the protective function as being important in volunteering generally, it was important to be able to compare whether it was relevant to work with young people. Secondly, it was important to explore what participants' responses to these questions would be and in particular whether volunteers would pick up on the controversy in the same way as professional practitioners might be expected to.

5.6.4 Sharing 'capitals'

The open comments in response to the protective function questions evidence that volunteers were using their own capital for young peoples' benefit, although this could also be related to the understanding function. Some respondents disagreed with the questions by highlighting their real motivations, which can be exemplified by the following response: 'I don't feel guilty about my privilege, but I do want to contribute in such a way that leverages my privilege to support and benefit those less fortunate than myself (EdD002, 20 – 24, Female, Q.11).

The development of volunteers' and young people's capitals is not mutually exclusive as was articulated by one open comment to this question:

> 'We do … trips. For disadvantaged teenagers. I've been very privileged in learning … and getting qualifications, so it's only right that I help those who would never have those opportunities otherwise' (EdD080, 20 – 24, Female).

Yet, whilst the mutual development of adult and young person is possible, it is most likely to be achieved with careful planning and forethought (Dewey, 1998) rather than leaving it to chance.

One critique of the questions related to the protective function is that they assume that the volunteer is more fortunate than the recipients of their volunteering. Whilst, as has already been discussed, adult volunteers have more power than the young people that they engage with, they are not necessarily more affluent or better educated. In my career I have worked with young people who had a much more affluent upbringing than my own thus making them more financially fortunate. However, they may have had poorer relationships with their parents and so therefore be less fortunate in terms of emotional support. This is, I believe, reinforced by a comment made by one of the respondents: 'Low incomes and 2 children' (EdD094, 30 – 34, Female, Q.11).

5.6.5 Addressing deficits

Whilst the protective function is described as volunteering to 'reduce negative feelings, such as guilt, or to address personal problems' (Clary and Snyder, 1999, p.157) in this research the function became enacted through volunteers wishing to provide opportunities to young people that they perceived as in deficit in their own youthful experiences.

Alison in focus group 2 identified that she volunteered 'to give young people what I perceive I missed out on as a young person' when considering what motivated her to volunteer in work with young people, and 'helping young people have opportunities I didn't' when exploring what made a good volunteering experience. Individuals from focus group 3 acknowledged that they volunteer 'because I was once in the same shoes so, like to help where I can' and that they had 'been in the same situation' which they characterised as 'personal experience' (Table 5-5). As focus group 2 discussed, this is a protective activity rather than being altruistic (Andreoni, 1990) or pro-social (Carlo *et al.*, 2005):

> **Daniel:** Does that make you feel good because you're allowing someone to have an opportunity that you didn't have or does that, at a slightly more deeper level help you, help take away some of the feeling of you not having that?
> **Alison:** I don't know really. It's about me feeling better about … Yeah, I actually think in a selfish way its more about me than … yeah.
> **Daniel:** It's about you righting a wrong.
> **Alison:** I feel I need to do that to make amends for … cause I don't want young people to sort of be in that sort of isolated position as it were (focus group 2).

As **Alison** identified, 'helping young people to have an opportunity is a very different thing to helping young people to have the opportunities that I didn't have' (focus group 2) and in doing so, a difference in motivation between providing young people opportunities and trying to address the deficits in a volunteer's own experiences. This does highlight ethical issues. However, if undertaken within appropriate boundaries this should not have a negative impact upon the young people involved.

5.6.6 Protective Function: Conclusions

This section has illustrated that the protective function was a controversial function for the survey respondents. There were three main protective related themes explored in this section. These were that volunteering in work with young people:

1. has limited protective functions, and this a controversial notion;
1. was a way for volunteers to share their 'capitals';
2. supported participants to address deficits in their own youth.

5.7 Social Function

The social function supports the development of social capital as 'volunteering allows the person to strengthen one's social relationships' (Clary and Snyder, 1999) and according to the literature discussed in Chapter 2 an important factor affecting people's motivation to volunteer is 'volunteer proximity' (Nesbit, 2012). As such, 'volunteering allows an individual to strengthen his or her social relationships' (Clary and Snyder, 1999, p.157). The social function is related to lifelong learning as volunteers can learn about themselves and others. It can also be linked to the development of social capital (Gratton and Ghoshal, 2003) as the individual can build social ties with the organisation, community or individuals they volunteer for or with.

There are five themes related to the social functions explored in this section:

1. Social motivations;
2. Cultural Reproduction;
3. Volunteer Proximity;
4. Relationships with professionals;
5. Other Commitments.

5.7.1 VFI: Social

The respondents to the online survey tended to agree that volunteering could support social functions. However, they were not entirely in agreement with all questions. Only 20% of respondents (n=25) answered positively to Q.4 '*People I'm close to want me to volunteer*'.

Table 5-25: VFI Questions related to the social function

Social Functions	Value	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Missing Values
2. My friends volunteer	Count	64	14	46	1
	Percent	51.2%	11.2%	36.8%	0.8%
4. People I'm close to want me to volunteer	Count	25	46	53	1
	Percent	20.0%	36.8%	42.4%	0.8%
6. People I know share an interest in community service	Count	94	22	9	0
	Percent	75.2%	17.6%	7.2%	0.0%
17. Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service	Count	75	30	19	1
	Percent	60.0%	24.0%	15.2%	0.8%
23. Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best	Count	54	44	25	2
	Percent	43.2%	35.2%	20.0%	1.6%

As with each of the functions two questions, Q.O2 and Q.O8, explored the social outcomes of volunteering in work with young people compared to the other questions which explored the social opportunities from volunteering generally.

Table 5-26: Social Outcomes from volunteering in work with young people

Social Outcomes	Value	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Missing Values
O2. People I know best know that I am/was volunteering to work with young people	Count	103	11	4	7
	Percent	82.4%	8.8%	3.2%	5.6%
O8. My friends found out that I am volunteering to work with young people	Count	71	40	7	7
	Percent	56.8%	32.0%	5.6%	5.6%

5.7.2 Social motivations

There was a very mixed response to the 5 questions related to the social function (Table 5-25). The social nature of volunteering in work with young people was discussed by all the focus groups.

Participation in a 'social' project is nuanced and not always positive. Focus group 4 identified feeling isolated as a social factor that would be a barrier to volunteering in work with young people: 'Being the only volunteer at my group for a long time' (Table 5-10). A member of focus group 1 identified 'unpleasant colleagues' as a barrier to volunteering in work with young people that could overcome their positive motivations (Table 5-3) and one identified 'awful colleagues' as something that might ruin an otherwise good volunteer experience (Table 5-11). Two members of this group agreed that 'people who are not very nice' or 'horrible' were a factor in a negative volunteering experience (Table 5-15). For focus group 2 this aspect of the social function was less important but they expressed that 'building relationships' was an important factor in 'making a difference' which was their main feature of a good volunteering experience (Table 5-12) though it is unclear whether those relationships were with adults, young people or both.

For the participants in focus group 3 'enjoying meeting new people' was a motivating factor in volunteering in work with young people (Table 5-5), but this wasn't as important a motivation in volunteering to work with young people as it was a factor contributing to a good volunteer experience (Table 5-13). This may mean that in the former they are more focused on supporting the young people. Three members of this group identified that isolation was something that undermines a generally positive volunteering experience (Table 5-13) but 'people' in one shape or form would also mitigate against aspects of a bad volunteering experience (Table 5-17) for all members of this group. As may be expected from the fact that three of the four volunteers were retiring from their current roles, focus group 4 identified that an unhappy work environment made for a bad volunteering experience (Table 5-18) and a 'hostile environment' was a factor which could undermine an otherwise good volunteering experience (Table 5-14) for one member of this group.

5.7.2.1 Social opportunities for young people

Whilst the literature focuses on the social element of volunteering for volunteers, participants highlighted the importance of providing social opportunities for young people:

> **Charles:** In the youth group in particular – it's a social outlet for people, for some people at least, who don't have any social outlet at all (focus group 1).

This may be a particular characteristic of volunteering in this, and allied, fields. It may be informed by attributes that can be linked to the innate characteristics of these volunteers (Millette and Gagné, 2008) such as altruism (Andreoni, 1990) or pro-social characteristics (Carlo *et al.*, 2005). However, participants also expressed an awareness that they were investing in the adults of the future and therefore this activity could be seen as being an investment in their own (future) community:

> They are our future; using our knowledge, experience and skill to help the next generation while everyone has a good time has got to be worthwhile (EdD050, 55 – 59, Male, Final Question).

As with other functions participants in the focus groups identified that the importance of the social element of their volunteering was not a clear-cut issue. Whilst they could see that the young people, and in focus group 4's case their own children, were getting something important from their volunteering they would be prepared to face quite challenging situations in order to continue to volunteer. In this case though most volunteers would draw the line at hostile environments or placements that put their own health and wellbeing at risk.

5.7.3 Cultural Reproduction

Formal volunteering happens in groups and organisations established by society. If developed uncritically or unintelligently (Dewey, 1998) they will reinforce the norms and strata of the society within which they are based (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1990). Lee et al. found that '(t)rustees are drawn from a narrow cross section of the communities that they serve' (2017, p.7) in England and Wales. This does not facilitate the cross-fertilisation of ideas, peoples and cultures that fosters the development of new social capital (Gratton and Ghoshal, 2003). Neither does it foster the development of relationships which will build understanding and or facilitate the valuing of the capital of different groups which will lead to the transformational experiences (Mezirow, 1997) which may lead to real personal and cultural change.

As discussed in section 4.9, the participants in this research were fairly evenly distributed across the volunteer roles with 5 women (3.7%) and 6 men (4.5%) performing the role of Trustee or Board member, 2 women (1.5%) and 2 men (1.5%) performing the role of School Governor and 29 women (21.6%), 27 men (20.1%) and one participant who would prefer not to identify their sex (0.7%), performing the role of Group Leader. However, there were 35 women (26.1%) compared to 21 men (26.1%) who identified as an untitled volunteer and 6 women (4.5%) and no men who were volunteering as a mentor or counsellor. Whilst the first three categories of volunteer role shows more equal groups of men and women, as there were fewer men participating in this research they are actually over represented, which supports Lee et al's (2017) findings for the sector in England and Wales more widely.

This is something that needs to be addressed if the field wishes to truly '(c)ontribute towards the promotion of social justice for young people and in society generally' (National Youth Agency, 2004). More inclusive recruitment across all voluntary roles in the field, but specifically within governance, will also help meet the requirements established to 'be accountable to young people, their parents or guardians, colleagues, funders, wider society' (ibid).

5.7.4 Volunteer Proximity

Despite volunteer proximity (Paik and Navarre-Jackson, 2010) being identified as a motivational factor in the literature discussed in Chapter 2, just over half (51.2%, n=64) of respondents agreed that their friends volunteer (Q.2). In the open comments, eight of the 17 responses articulated that the friends that do volunteer were met during volunteering: 'But only the friends I have made through volunteering' (EdD052, 40 – 44, Male, Q.2). Whilst 42.4% (n=53) of respondents disagreed with Q.4 '*People I'm close to want me to volunteer*', some of the respondents inferred a sense of coercion in the question: 'There has never been any expectation or pressure from others that I volunteer. It has always been my own choice to do so' (EdD119, 35 – 39, Male, Q.4). Volunteering is so often discussed in an uncritical and benign manner, yet this response is evidence that some participants were aware of coercion (Duguid, Mundel and Schugurensky, 2013) in volunteering even if they were not personally affected.

One respondent was clear that whilst the social function had been an outcome, it wasn't a motivating factor: 'Through my volunteering I now have a large group of friends from the same organisation, however it was not influential in causing me to volunteer in the first instance' (EdD048, 40 – 44, Male, Q.2). Comparing the relatively low levels of agreement with Q.2 with the responses to Q.6 '*People I know share an interest in community service*' (n=94, 75.2%) raises the question why 30 more respondents agreed with Q.6 than Q.2. It is unclear how respondents conceptualise 'friends' compared to 'people I know' and what the distinction respondents were making between 'volunteering' and 'community service' to create such a different response to these two questions. I explored the differences between the definitions of volunteering and social action in Chapter 2, but for respondents to this survey there seems to be a substantial difference. The open comments do not explain this any further other than one individual questioning the terminology: '"people" quite a general term, friends, family the people on my street???????' (EdD045, 35 – 39, Male, Q.6).

Further questions are raised by the responses to Q.17 '*Others whom I am close to place a high value on community service*' (n=75, 60.0%) which respondents agreed with 15.2% (n=19) less than Q.6. This implies that people that the respondents know share an interest in community service, but the people that they are close to are less likely to place a high value on community service. This is quite a confusing set of responses to compare but what this may mean is that for these respondents' community service is a nice to have rather than a must have activity. The open comments to Q.6 and Q.17 suggest that this might be the case but that it is different across their social groups: 'those in caring professions have an interest more than those not so' (EdD088, 45 – 49, Female, Q.6) and 'Dependent on the circle from which they come. Friends in the charitable sector yes, with those in IT for example not much interest in' (EdD123, 30 – 34, Female, Q.17). Both these responses seem to suggest that there is a trait in the individuals that extends to the paid work that they do rather than volunteering meeting very different needs, but as this was not the focus of this research, this cannot be explored further.

The largest group of respondents (43.2%, n=54) agreed with Q.23 '*Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best*'. This further challenges the notions of volunteer proximity (Paik and Navarre-Jackson, 2010) and the need to invest in creating a culture (Thompson, 2012) which supports volunteering. Of the 100 participants who answered the question, 56 had volunteered for more than 5 years (Table 4-15) and yet there is a real sense that the respondents do not necessarily identify that their social group value volunteering or community service in the way that they do. This is due to a range of other priorities, for example, '(i)t depends. For some, there are limitations on their time' (EdD119, 35 – 39, Male, Q.23), but the strongest message emerging from the open comments relates to Mueller's question of 'why a utility-maximizing "economic man (or woman)" would find it rational to do work for free?' (1975, p.326). As one respondent states: 'Depends on the person...some see it is positive and others feel they would never do it for no pay' (EdD003, 35 – 39, Female, Q.4).

Neither Q.O2. '*People I know best know that I am/was volunteering to work with young people*' nor Q.O8. '*My friends found out that I am volunteering to work with young people*' have a comparable 'general question'. As such, there is no comparison to make unlike the other outcome questions. However, the outcome questions related to the social function were answered more positively than the ones related to volunteering generally. The responses to these questions, fall in to two categories. Firstly, as was discussed earlier, many of the respondents made friends through volunteering. The second group of responses were perplexed by the question, in particular QO.8 with one respondent commenting, 'What do you mean 'found out'? I have never made a secret out of it' (EdD102, 35 – 39, Male).

Despite this volunteer proximity (Paik and Navarre-Jackson, 2010) is not completely irrelevant to recruitment in volunteering in work with young people. Table 4-11 illustrates that 38 (30.6%) of participants were recruited by being asked by someone they knew and one respondent to the survey expressed 'They got me involved' (EdD076, 55 – 59, Male, Q.2).

5.7.5 Relationships with professionals

Social learning theory 'posits that people learn from observing other people. By definition, such observations take place in a social setting' (Merriam, Caffarella and Baumgartner, 2007, p.134). By giving their time, volunteers become part of a community of practice and learn through practicing alongside 'masters' (Wenger, 1998, p. 56). In work with young people these masters are professional workers.

For focus group 4 the relationships that they had with the professional workers within the organisation was very important to their motivation to continue. Three out of four of this group were retiring from their current role and the lack of engagement and support that they had from professionals at the children's centre that they volunteered at was a key factor in their decision making:

> **Isobel:** I mean having another professional to assist, I mean I have experience from when the children's centre was well funded and we had more staff and we could learn from them (focus group 4)

This group identified a lack of support and feeling isolated as two serious barriers to them volunteering and for two participants a 'lack of support' was the negative which would overcome any positives and affect their willingness to volunteer (Table 5-6). Furthermore, the participants articulated that their participation in the research was based upon their hope that their messages regarding support would be fed back to the organisation.

Focus group 1 discussed the importance of a professional environment (Table 5-11) whereas focus group 2 highlighted the negative impact of being unsupported as a result of understaffing (Table 5-16). Lack of support, which included supervision and guidance from professionals, was the biggest factor in making a volunteering experience a negative one for focus group 4 (Table 5-18).

There was only one mention of professional input or support across the VFI comments, but the commentary was extensive and sums up much of the findings of this thesis:

> Volunteering work with young people is a powerful and positive experience. However, with current council cuts there seem to be less professionals that are able to fully support new volunteers. This has, sometimes led to a lot of pressure on volunteers and no solid support structure in place. This, in turn seems to have put some off volunteering. With the correct support structure in place and safeguarding, volunteering can be an enriching experience for both the workers and the participants (EdD119, 35 – 39, Male, Final Question).

An ongoing role for professionals in work with young people, as discussed already, is to facilitate volunteers learning in ways very similar to those they utilise in supporting young people's learning. Supporting volunteers to reflect on their experiences (Boulton, 2010; Duguid, Mundel and Schugurensky, 2013) in order to 'act in (a) deliberate and intentional fashion' (Dewey, 1998, p.17) will not only help them achieve their personal objectives for volunteering, but also enable them to support the young people more effectively.

5.7.6 Other Commitments

Whilst some of these factors will be discussed in section 5.11.6, the most substantial barrier to volunteering of any kind can be defined as 'other commitments'. The foremost of these was characterised as 'time', though this can be articulated as time left after other commitments. Time was identified by each of the four focus groups from both positive and negative perspectives. There were some noteworthy aspects with focus group 1 differentiating between 'Essentials' which included work and family commitments and 'Nonessentials/desirables' which included other volunteering commitments (Table 5-7). Almost all of the barriers to volunteering in work with young people identified by focus group 2, resources, time and priorities, relate to time (Table 5-8) whereas members of focus group 3 found it difficult to identify anything that would stop them from volunteering:

Elsie: I don't think I want to stop it. Ever. There's not much that would stop me.

Though in reality, factors such as their children's health, quite rightly, would take precedent over their very strong volunteer identity.

Respondents to the survey explored the balance that they needed to strike. In response to Q.4 '*People I am close to want me to volunteer'* one person reported 'most would prefer I didn't because of the time committed' (EdD109, 55 – 59, Female). Another respondent was very clear that their volunteering put pressure on their family life: 'Takes me away from family and puts extra burden on partner as I am away for weekends and 6 day trips' (EdD052, 40 – 44, Male, Q.4) therefore the activity being volunteered in, the group or cause in receipt of the volunteering, or the outcome for the volunteer, must be of high enough value to offset these other priorities.

5.7.7 Social Function: Conclusions

This section has illustrated that the social function was a motivating factor for many of the participants in this research. There were five themes related to the social function explored in this section. These were:

1. Social function;
2. Cultural Reproduction;
3. Volunteer Proximity;
4. Relationships with professionals;
5. Other Commitments.

5.8 Understanding Function

The understanding functions correlates most closely to the ideas in the literature regarding volunteering as learning and as such is particularly significant to my research. As Clary and Snyder state 'the volunteer is seeking to learn more about the world or exercise skills that are often unused' (Clary and Snyder, 1999, p.157). It is therefore relevant to the development of social capital (Gratton and Ghoshal, 2003) and building capital by sharing a skill that is seen as valuable to the organisation or community who an individual volunteers for and with. Whilst learning may be implicit in other functions such as career, it is more specifically addressed here.

There are three main themes related to the understanding function explored in this section. Participants identified that their volunteering in work with young people:

1. has an understanding function;
2. is important for their personal development, particularly as a form of lifelong learning (Duguid, Mundel and Schugurensky, 2013);
3. is improved through intelligent action (Dewey, 1998).

5.8.1 VFI: Understanding

The respondents to the online survey were in strong agreement that volunteering could support understanding related outcomes. Q.25 '*I can learn to deal with a variety of people*' was agreed with by 96% (n=120) of respondents.

Table 5-27: VFI Questions related to the understanding function

Understanding Function	Value	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Missing Values
12. I can learn more about the cause for which I am working	Count	95	16	14	0
	Percent	76.0%	12.8%	11.2%	0.0%
14. Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things	Count	115	5	5	0
	Percent	92.0%	4.0%	4.0%	0.0%
18. Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience	Count	114	5	5	1
	Percent	91.2%	4.0%	4.0%	0.8%
25. I can learn how to deal with a variety of people	Count	120	3	1	1
	Percent	96.0%	2.4%	0.8%	0.8%
30. I can explore my own strengths	Count	113	6	3	3
	Percent	90.4%	4.8%	2.4%	2.4%

As with each of the functions two questions, Q.O6 and Q.O16, explored the understanding outcomes of volunteering in work with young people compared to the other questions which explored the understanding outcomes from volunteering generally.

Table 5-28: Understanding Outcomes from volunteering in work with young people

Understanding Outcomes	Value	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Missing Values
O6. I have learned how to deal with a greater variety of people through volunteering to work with young people	Count	115	3	1	6
	Percent	92.0%	2.4%	0.8%	4.8%
O12. I have been able to learn more about the cause for which I am working by volunteering	Count	102	14	1	8
	Percent	81.6%	11.2%	0.8%	6.4%

5.8.2 Understanding motivations

The responses to the VFI related to understanding show a very strong agreement from participants. This may be due to the fact that the volunteers are adults and they are working with young people and therefore age, and inherent experience, are the minimum skills that are needed in order to have something to offer the recipients of their volunteering. However, this was not evident from the open comments responses or focus groups.

Fewer respondents agreed with Q.12 '*I can learn more about the cause for which I am working*' (n=95, 76.0%) than Q.O12 '*I have been able to learn more about the cause for which I am working by volunteering*' (n=102, 81.60%). This shows that respondents felt that volunteering to work with young people was more effective in supporting them to learn about the cause for which they were working than volunteering generally. Though Table 5-27 shows that respondents were less likely to agree with Q12 of all the understanding related questions. The open comments illustrate two main reasons for this. Firstly, respondents felt volunteering with an organisation should be based upon an understanding of the value of their work rather than learning about the organisation after signing up: 'Surely you learn about the cause before you volunteer?' (EdD019, 35 – 39, Female, Q.12).

The second idea that was proffered was from a long-time volunteer: 'After 12 odd years the cause has not changed too much (D of E)' (EdD092, 40 – 44, Male, Q.12). This may be a limitation of volunteering with an organisation over an extended period of time or it might be a factor which will be reassuring to some volunteers, enabling them to focus on different kinds of learning such as progressing through the organisation. However, this was not evident in the survey responses or discussed in the focus groups.

Learning featured most strongly in the focus groups as a way of sharing their own skills and knowledge with an organisation or recipients, more than developing their own learning, although the latter was present. Focusing solely on the learning of the young people is appropriate whilst delivering youth work, but it is a mistake to ignore volunteers learning through volunteering (Duguid, Mundel and Schugurensky, 2013) or indeed for volunteering. Without focusing on their learning, when appropriate, there is limited opportunity to develop volunteers capitals as discussed in chapter 2 (Gratton and Ghoshal, 2003) or to ensure that the ways on which they are engaging with the young people is appropriate.

Participants in focus group 1 identified developing 'new skills' as a key motivating factor for volunteering with young people (Table 5-3):

> **Charles:** Another one is the learning skills, expanding ones horizons, so it's not just about the narrow skills the practical skills but also maybe dipping into another area that you haven't been previously exposed to (focus group 1).

'Learning new skills' was also highlighted by focus group 2 as a personal outcome, separate to the 'professional outcomes' identified (Table 5-4) which may be due to the age and experience of the participants. This needs to be explored further in future research, but might suggest that for some participants the skills that they develop through volunteering, which is done in their own time outside of their work, is personally motivated and therefore sits outside any professional development opportunities they may participate in. In light of the literature explored previously it may also be that different age groups will respond to this differently (Marta & Pozzi, 2008) and it is important to note that all the focus group 2 members were aged between 35-44 and were in higher (1-4) SES groups.

Volunteers also articulated that they learnt from each other:

> The [[activity] and [[other]] work is entirely obvious that by [[working]] with experts I learn (EdD051, 65 – 69, Male, Q.18).

This has relevance to the social function and volunteers' relationships with 'professionals'. In some volunteer settings the experts may be fellow volunteers. As many youth organisations facilitate learning opportunities for young people, this may create opportunities for volunteers to benefit from the same activities and therefore learn from specialists or enjoy activities through which they too can learn.

5.8.3 Personal development

Learning through volunteering was not only articulated as formal learning, but also a holistic form of personal development which enabled volunteers to learn about themselves as well as the young people and other adult volunteers:

> I meet a lot of people from a very different background to mine which has been good for me (EdD080, 20 – 24, Female, Q.14).

This signifies the role that work with young people can have in bringing together diverse groups of people. Whilst this can support the development of social capital it can also foster a more integrated and understanding society. However, there are areas to address if this is to be more effectively delivered. Firstly, it is notable that members of the focus groups came from similar groups to those who they were working with: focus group 1, identity, focus group 3, mothers of children under 5 and focus groups 2 and 4 were from the same geographical communities in which they volunteered. It is important to note though that they may not have the same experience of that community:

> 'I can gain a different perspective on some of the real issues within the community' (EdD119, 35 – 39, Male, Q.15)

This is reinforced by the survey responses which were strongly in agreement with both Q.25 '*I can learn how to deal with a greater variety of people*' (n=120, 96.0%) and Q.O6. '*I have learned how to deal with a greater variety of people through volunteering to work with young people*' (n=115, 92.0%).

It may be that there is a trade-off which needs to happen and that staff teams need to have a mixture of adults with the same identities as the young people in order to provide positive role models (Sapin, 2013b), but also include adults from different backgrounds to foster understanding across social groups. As with other facets of volunteering in work with young people, this may take some consideration, but the benefits could be significant.

Focus group 3 identified 'self-improvement' as being a motivating factor in their volunteering to work with young people. However, the components of this were related more to the Enhancement Function so this was discussed in section 5.5. In fact, this group did not identify their own learning as being an important factor in relation to any of the questions. Though they did discuss the need to learn as part of their roles:

> **Hilary:** I think you have to learn to evaluate otherwise you'll be wasting your time (focus group 3).

Focus group 4 identified that 'new experiences and personal development' were an important motivating factor in their volunteering (Table 5-6). This group also recognised 'personal development' as an aspect of what makes a good volunteer experience (Table 5-14). They also acknowledged the need for formal learning opportunities to support them:

> **Jackie:** And I think also, the training thing, which to this I day I haven't even looked at and now I am possibly not going to do volunteering, as I may not be able to, in fact I'm sure I can't now, but I think as a volunteer, because it's another thing on top of your normal life, I would have liked to have looked at something, but there has never been 'this course might be something that would be of interest, you could look on here', which is fair enough as I know they are snowed under, so it's the least of the priorities really but, I am probably blissfully unaware of what there is you could have been learning, does that make sense? You know things that could have supported us (focus group 4).

5.8.3.1 Lifelong Learning

Learning undertaken through participating in volunteering activities contributes to individuals' lifelong learning (Livingstone, 2010). Complimenting the personal development opportunities afforded by volunteering in work with young people, participants articulated learning skills for the future which in this case also relates to the career function:

> **Jackie:** I think a lot of it was being given new opportunities to learn new things myself, which I did put down to learn new skills which has made me think that this might be something that I might like to do in the future – maybe working as a teaching assistant, but I don't know until I try the volunteering whether that is something I want to do (focus group 4)

As Jackie illustrates, a theme which emerged through both the focus group discussions and the open comments on the VFI survey was that volunteers' motivations had changed over their lifetime. Through volunteering in a range of settings, or progressing through an organisation, volunteers are able to continue to learn. As one respondent outlined:

> 'I have volunteered in lots of roles from when I first left university, up to now. All roles could be described as facilitator of learning.' (EdD115, 40 – 44, Female).

Of the participants who answered the question, 56 (54%) had been volunteering for between 5 and 16+ years. As long as they were continuing to learn through their volunteering, their learning can be considered extensive, even if it cannot be considered lifelong yet. This ongoing and holistic learning that volunteering facilitated is described by one survey respondent who had volunteered for over 16 years:

> 'My own development has been helped by lessons learned through volunteering' (EdD060, 60 – 64, Male, Q.O11).

5.8.4 Intelligent Action

When volunteers are being used to run services rather than to complement them, there is a conflict between the needs of the organisation and those of the volunteers. More research is needed in this area to explore how staff are trained and supported during periods of change and how they in turn support their volunteers. The experiences shared by focus group 4 identify issues at the structural level (Thompson, 2012) which need to be addressed if volunteers are to be retained and if they are to be able to benefit from all the advantages of volunteering in work with young people.

If the outcomes of volunteering, for the individual, the community and society in general, which the panacea theory (Baines and Hardill, 2008) proffers, are to be realised, then the actions to facilitate it must be considered, informed and intelligent (Dewey, 1998). The implications of this for volunteers, volunteer managers and policy makers will be discussed further in Chapter 6. However, it is at each of these levels that the outcomes of volunteering cannot be left to serendipity. Volunteering needs to be discussed critically, moving beyond the benign, unconditionally positive discourse that is so often included in volunteering marketing and literature, to identify the unique motivations and needs of individual volunteers and the distinctive experiences offered by each organisation (Bales, 1996). As Dewey states, intelligent action 'converts action that is merely appetitive, blind and impulsive' (1998, p.17). In terms of volunteering, this means moving beyond considerations of initial motivation towards clarifying what volunteers want to achieve through their volunteering and identifying the appropriate sector and organisation to support them to meet these needs. It also points to a need for cultural change whereby volunteers of all backgrounds recognise and feel comfortable with the notion of gaining from their voluntary activity.

5.8.5 Understanding Function: Conclusions

This section has illustrated that the understanding function makes a significant contribution to the benefits of volunteering in work with young people. There were three themes related to understanding explored in this section. Participants identified that their volunteering in work with young people:

1. has an understanding function;
2. is important for their personal development, particularly as a form of lifelong learning;
3. is improved through intelligent action.

5.9 Values Function

According to Clary & Snyder, volunteers are motivated 'in order to express or act on important values, such as humanitarianism and helping the less fortunate' (1999, p.157). In doing so the individual may develop their Emotional Capital as they increase their 'courage and resilience for taking actions' (Gratton & Ghoshal, 2003, p.2). At first glance, value-based motivations may appear altruistic (Houle, Sagarin and Kaplan, 2005). However, as will be explored in this section, the volunteer benefits either through direct outcomes or as a result of feeling valued.

There are three main themes related to the values function explored in this section. As such participants identified that their volunteering in work with young people:

1. has a values function;
2. was often unpinned by their valuing the service and need to sustain it;
3. made them feel valued.

5.9.1 VFI: Values

The respondents to the online survey strongly agreed that their volunteering was aligned to their values. 96.8% (n=121) of respondents agreed with Q.19 '*I feel it is important to help others*'.

Table 5-29: VFI Questions related to the values function

Value Functions	Value	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Missing Values
3. I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself	Count	112	9	4	0
	Percent	89.6%	7.2%	3.2%	0.0%
8. I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving	Count	104	15	5	1
	Percent	83.2%	12.0%	4.0%	0.8%
16. I feel compassion toward people in need	Count	109	13	2	1
	Percent	87.2%	10.4%	1.6%	0.8%
19. I feel it is important to help others	Count	121	2	1	1
	Percent	96.8%	1.6%	0.8%	0.8%
22. I can do something for a cause which is important to me	Count	119	4	1	1
	Percent	95.2%	3.2%	0.8%	0.8%

As with each of the functions two questions, Q.O3 and Q.O9, explored the understanding outcomes of volunteering in work with young people compared to the other questions which explored the understanding outcomes from volunteering generally.

Table 5-30: Values Outcomes from volunteering in work with young people

Value Outcomes	Value	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Missing Values
O3. People I am genuinely concerned about are being helped through my volunteer work with young people	Count	83	25	11	6
	Percent	66.4%	20.0%	8.8%	4.8%
O9. Through volunteering to work with young people, I am doing something for a cause that I believe in	Count	114	4	0	7
	Percent	91.2%	3.2%	0.0%	5.6%

5.9.2 Values Function

The VFI participants strongly agreed with all the questions related to values (Table 5-29), although a few individuals did disagree and a slightly higher number neither agreed nor disagreed demonstrating that value congruence was an important motivating factor for the respondents to the VFI. This was also important to the focus group participants.

Two types of values congruence were apparent in the open comments, those that align to the volunteers' own personal identity and priorities and the importance of the values of the organisation that the volunteer is working with. Whilst these two areas are not mutually exclusive the responses aligned to the individual's personal values were often related to 'their community' which may be represented by where they live or an aspect of their identity, as exemplified by the following quote: 'I always want to give back to the community and that is my sole intention to volunteer (EdD027, M, 35-39, Q.3). Other respondents had particular personal skills or interests that they hope to share, 'I have a lot of skills that I want to pass on, that I know will help people' (EdD080, F, 20-24, Q.3). The latter, therefore, also relate to other VFIs such as understanding, through sharing their learning rather than developing new skills, and enhancement, as sharing their skills makes them feel good.

The other open comments in response to Q.3 illustrate the strength of feelings of the volunteers; 'although due to time limited work it never feels enough!' (EdD088, F, 45-49) and 'I am concerned about young people in general and I help a few through my volunteer work' (EdD060, M, 60-64). So rather than these volunteers not feeling that 'people that I am genuinely concerned about are being helped through my volunteer work with young people' it is rather that they do not want to over claim their contributions. This has implications for their own ongoing motivation. As has been discussed elsewhere, volunteers maintain their motivation levels when they see the impact of their time and it increases their satisfaction as discussed in section 5.10.

This reinforces the need to foster intelligent action (Dewey, 1938) and reflexivity (Finlay, 2008) in volunteers in work with young people in order to support them to identify their contributions, make claims about it and see this process as positive. Given the claims made about the values, ethics and principles underpinning work with young people it should be that this field is almost uniquely able to support this and make claims for its value to volunteering more generally.

Values were an important motivation for all the focus groups (Tables 5-3, 5-4, 5-5, 5-6), though this was expressed in different ways. Each groups' main motivation for volunteering in work with young people was related to their own values whether that be to value the recipients of their volunteering or to provide a service which makes a positive social contribution. This aligns with Clary and Snyder's (1999) definition and can also be aligned to broader social functions of volunteering. The 'values' function of volunteering was not as strongly identified in the factors which make for a good volunteering experience with only focus group 2 identifying 'making a difference' (Table 5-12) as their main response.

Table 5-27 illustrates that there was a strong agreement from the respondents that '*through volunteering I can do something for a cause which is important to me*' (Q.22) and the idea that '*through volunteering in work with young people I am doing something for a cause I believe in*' (Q.09). However, there was a far greater disparity between respondents' answers to the idea that '*I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving*' (Q.8) compared to the specific question '*people that I am genuinely concerned about are being helped through my volunteer work with young people*' (Q.03). The reasons for this disparity begin to be uncovered by the respondents open comments. For one individual, Q.03 was one of the more controversial and less clear questions in the survey; 'I don't understand this question???' (EdD045, M, 35-39). It seems that work with young people may be very clear about its ethical value base or it may be that the type of volunteering that is being undertaken by the volunteer responding is so uncontroversial that this question seems absurd. It is important to note that the VFI has been developed in order to explore volunteering functions across the spectrum of opportunities and so some questions may be more or less relevant to volunteering in work with young people compared to other forms of volunteering (Houle, Sagarin and Kaplan, 2005).

Survey responses to Q.O9. '*Through volunteering to work with young people, I am doing something for a cause that I believe in*' compares very favourably to the responses to Q.22. '*I can do something for a cause which is important to me*'. Volunteering in work with young people aligns well to adults' motivations to volunteer generally which may explain why so many of the participants in this research had been volunteering for such a long time (Table 4-15).

As discussed in Chapter 2, values and ethics are very important in work with young people (Sercombe, 2013), as enacted through the praxis and values of the organisation that they are volunteering with (Taylor, Mallinson and Bloch, 2007). Therefore, individuals' values are very important to work with young people.

The second set of responses are aligned to the values of the organisation either in terms of their values or the opportunities that it grants to young people:

> 'the organisation provides fantastic opportunities for people from all walks of life' (EdD017, F, 45-49, Q.3).

Each of the focus groups reinforced that the values of the organisation drew them in, in some shape or form. The discussions allowed for a more nuanced conversation and so the personal motivations were added to by a sense of an individuals' practice values corresponding to the organisational values. This was complemented by the volunteer's sense of wanting to work with the young people benefitting from the work of the organisation rather than the activity being undertaken with the young people. This was particularly true of the identity of the group being worked with by focus group 1 for whom 'making a difference for [[identity]] communities' was the main motivating factor, which is congruent with the questions asked in the survey. But they were also interested in generally 'Helping others' although this was not completely clear cut 'I enjoy helping others and this seems like a worthy cause' (Table 5-3), which was also an issue identified by focus group 2 as well (Table 5-4).

The kudos of particular organisations was also a motivating factor for some volunteers. This may also be related to the enhancement function as volunteers acquire reflected glory from volunteering for a project that is highly respected within their community:

> 'It's about the work that the organisation does as in knowing how fantastic it is and knowing what a difference it makes as in to be part of that is a big deal (**Andrew**, focus group 1).

5.9.3 Valuing the service and needing to sustain it

An important theme within the focus group discussions was around 'sustaining the service' (Table 5-6, focus group 4) and 'giving opportunity' to young people (Table 5-4, focus group 2). Focus group 4 were particularly aware of the impact of Government policy on the projects that they were volunteering and the impact on the experience as volunteers:

> **Jackie:** When we had more staff, which I know is not their fault, but I did put down another one that I felt let down by the government really, because it is only target families now that they are really focussing on with the Sure Start and that was one of the other factors, reasons that we all volunteered because we wanted to say sod them, you know, this group should be for all, it was set up for all and the fact that you are not necessarily a particular group shouldn't make any difference. Because I still feel basically that we are being alienated/marginalised and because you are not fitting into a multi parent group or you are not a traveller for example but because you are just an average everyday kind of family, that you are not important and don't need that support (focus group 3)

This challenges the Government's belief in the crowding out theory and reinforces Bartels et al's (2013) research which suggests an alternative relationship, that in order for volunteering to be sustained, a collaborative approach is needed (Bartels, Cozzi and Mantovan, 2013). Hackl et al (2010) argue that crowding out depends upon the volume of public social expenditure. This is the case with these volunteers as the funding to Children's Centres had been reduced to the point that there were no paid staff involved in the project which made volunteering no longer viable for three of the volunteers.

5.9.4 Feeling valued

All the focus groups identified the importance of feeling valued. All groups identified the importance of a thank you or seeing that they were making a positive contribution as being something that motivated them to continue to volunteer. Three out of four members of focus group 4 had recently decided to end their volunteering. Whilst there was a sense that this was due to their own children starting to move on it was also very clear that the group felt that as volunteers working alone they were not able to provide the same level of service as when they were supported by the paid centre workers:

> **Jackie:** The value just become less doesn't it. And also, possibly because we haven't got the training on the EYSF and not fully understanding why you are doing what you are doing, I mean I wouldn't suddenly know that you could make a sunflower out of a paper plate as it wouldn't necessarily enter my head but if someone had done some sort of planning, it is that sort of thing then when parents come in they can quite clearly see that it is Easter, which we try very hard to do, but I do wonder sometimes … (focus group 4).

As a result, they did not feel valued by the local authority who ran the centre and they felt that they were not achieving the same level of impact through their volunteering, thus demotivating them. This is clearly important and relates again to the importance of the context or institution in enabling and sustaining volunteering (Rotolo and Wilson, 2011).

As discussed in section 5.7.5, an important role for professionals working with volunteers is to support them to be able to identify their contributions to the project. One challenging element can be the ways in which young people show that they value the service being provided. In my own practice I have worked with inexperienced colleagues, both paid and volunteers, who have become exasperated by young people who come back week after week but misbehave or do not engage with activities. As an experienced professional I have been able to support colleagues to reflect and identify that the fact that the young people were returning meant that they were having some need met by their attendance. It was our job to try to understand what these needs are and to support the young person to consider whether there were more positive ways of achieving the same outcomes.

5.9.5 Values Function: Conclusions

This section has illustrated that values are a very important function for the respondents to the VFI and participants in the focus group participants. There were three values related themes identified in this section. Participants identified that their volunteering in work with young people:

1. has a values function;
2. was often unpinned by their valuing the service and need to sustain it;
3. made them feel valued.

5.10 Satisfaction with volunteering in work with young people

Questions S13 – S17 of the online survey asked the respondents about how satisfied they were with their volunteering experiences.

Table 5-31: VFI Questions related to satisfaction in volunteering

		Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Missing Values
S13. I am enjoying / did enjoy my volunteer experience	Count	116	1	0	8
	Percent	92.8%	0.8%	0.0%	6.4%
S14. My volunteer experience has been / was personally fulfilling	Count	114	4	0	7
	Percent	91.2%	3.2%	0.0%	5.6%
S15. The experience of volunteering to work with young people has been a worthwhile one	Count	116	0	0	9
	Percent	92.8%	0.0%	0.0%	7.2%
S16. I have been able to make an important contribution by volunteering to work with young people	Count	112	6	0	7
	Percent	89.6%	4.8%	0.0%	5.6%
S17. I have accomplished a great deal of 'good' through my volunteer work	Count	105	8	1	11
	Percent	84%	6.4%	0.8%	8.8%

The responses to questions S13 to S17 were very positive which is particularly encouraging as volunteers who express high levels of satisfaction are more likely to volunteer for longer periods (Finkelstien, 2009). This is reinforced by the periods of time that respondents had volunteered for as it is highly unlikely that the unhappy volunteers will give their time long-term, as shown in Table 4.15. Not only can this support initial volunteer recruitment, but it also suggests that volunteer retention, and ongoing motivation, is good. However, for some respondents, support is needed to assess the impact of their volunteering:

> I can't quantify a 'a great deal of good' I give my best and act as professional, the problem with sail training is that there is no way of measuring the quality of the experience and how long the lasting effects stay with the young people. We can inspire and motivate during the trip, but we have no way of monitoring once the young person get back into 'their own world' (EdD045, M, 35-39, Q.S17)

The positivity of volunteers in work with young people suggests that they are more likely to discuss their experiences positively with others and thereby recruit other volunteers (Bekkers, 2005; Nesbit, 2012).

Table 5-32: VFI Questions related to volunteering intention

Label	Value	volunteering in work with young people	volunteering in another field	not volunteering at all	Missing Values
18. One year from now, will you be:	Count	88	15	12	10
	Percent	70.4%	12.0%	9.6%	8.0%

It is encouraging to see that so many of the volunteers would continue with their volunteering and therefore potentially gain more positive personal and social outcomes from their contribution. It might be more positive for the 15 respondents who will be volunteering in another field as they will be more likely to access new learning opportunities in these new experiences. Of those not volunteering, 8 were female and 4 were male; they were across the age ranges, 4 were single and 8 were married, 4 were from lower managerial occupations but otherwise they were not from any one group: so, there is no real pattern across this group.

The final open question was responded to by 31 participants: 'And finally, is there any aspect of your volunteering experience in work with young people that you have not been asked about but would like to share?' Many of these responses were related to one of the VFI themes where relevant but others highlighted some interesting other perspectives. All of these responses have been integrated into the relevant sections of Chapter 5 and itemised as 'Final Question', where relevant.

5.11 Critique of the VFI

The employment of the VFI survey in this research has enabled conversations regarding adult motivations to volunteer in work with young people in England. However, through analysing the results some limitations of this approach have been identified.

Firstly, the original VFI did not include the opportunity for participants to comment openly on the questions. The inclusion of open comments boxes throughout the VFI in this research has provided rich qualitative and quantitative data which has clarified the range of ways in which participants interpreted the questions and their relationship to the contexts of their volunteering. It has also illuminated the second limitation of the VFI, which is a lack of debate regarding the connection between the various functions.

Whilst Clary & Snyder (2002) recognise that volunteering may meet more than one motivation, it has become clear that some of the questions relate to other functions than just the one it is initially aligned to, such as Q.29 '*Volunteering is a way to make new friends'* which is associated to the enhancement function but relates to the social function as well. Furthermore, respondents' comments have highlighted where the perceptions of the questions or their challenge of them have highlighted other relevant functions.

Finally, as discussed in Chapter 3, the VFI has become dominant within research into volunteering motivation. As such, it risks marginalising other approaches and suppressing other debates being adopted to explore this subject. Just as in work with young people, one approach cannot meet the needs of a diverse society and any dominant ideology threatens to crowd out alternative approaches which might offer solutions that the traditional approach does not. One example of this is Bales (1996) article 'Measuring the Propensity to Volunteer' which identifies the changing role of charities in delivering services that were traditionally considered state responsibilities, and the ethical implications for the way in which they work with both volunteers and their service users. Bales (ibid) also identified that altruism was not a significant factor in organised volunteering and finally, he drew upon work that detected that volunteers described a mix of motivations informing their actions. These conclusions resonate with those of this thesis. Similarly, no more recent author has identified a characteristic or motivation which cannot be aligned to Mueller's (1975) model, though her work is not widely cited.

As stated in Chapter 1, the focus of my research changed whilst undertaking my literature review due to limited published research regarding volunteering in work with young people. These two authors have contributed important perspectives to my analysis of the VFI Survey and focus group discussions. However, they were not adopted earlier as they were not as credible within research in volunteering as the VFI. This was due to the robust way in which the VFI was developed (Clary *et al.*, 1998) and credibility conferred by the number of scholars who have utilised the VFI in their own research. Whilst I believe that this is of no detriment to this research, it illustrates the value of diversity in approaches and how easily dominant ideas can crowd out different approaches.

5.11.1 The importance of context

Another aspect of the volunteering experience which is not addressed by the VFI survey is the impact of the context of volunteering. Context may indicate the individuals' own context, including work commitments and family responsibilities but, may also refer to the nature and context of the organisation the volunteer is working with. Furthermore, it may refer to the social policy context relating to volunteering in the nation in question.

These have already been discussed in the main part of this chapter. The **Personal context** of volunteers' lives is vitally important to both their motivations but also the kinds of learning that they might participate in. The demotivating factors that the Focus Groups identified are discussed in section 5.12.3 of this chapter. There are some factors which cannot be acted upon by those facilitating volunteering nonetheless there are clearly areas for development. Participants highlighted the challenges of not knowing what volunteer opportunities were available, for example. Furthermore, they expressed a need for settings to be open about the commitment that was required in order that volunteers could ensure that they had the capacity alongside the rest of their lives.

Whilst this statement was made nearly 20 years ago, Wilson asserts 'studies of the experience of volunteering have only just begun to plot and explain spells of volunteering over the life course and to examine the causes of volunteer turnover' (2000, p. 215). This is a key finding of this research. Whilst 56 (56%) of participants in the survey had volunteered for over 5 years, it cannot be assumed that they did so in the same organisation or indeed only with one organisation. Some participants used the opportunity that the open comments boxes gave them to explain their individual experiences. The Focus Groups all discussed the ebb and flow of volunteering life. These changes throughout volunteers lives challenge the notion of a volunteer habitus (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1990) but reinforces the use of Thompson's PCS (2012) model which illustrates the interplay between an individual's innate willingness to volunteer to be aligned with an organisational and policy context which creates the right opportunities.

Organisational Context has been discussed where relevant throughout this chapter. However, added to these debates are the fact that members of focus group 2 also expressed concern around 'compromising values and beliefs' which they identified as being a facet of a bad volunteering experience. They identified that there were certain groups who they would not feel comfortable working with, such as 'certain rehab reasons (the people being volunteered with or the recipients of volunteering)' which would prevent them from volunteering.

Furthermore, focus groups 1 and 2 explored the idea that it wasn't enough to volunteer with those who might benefit from it but that the recipients and the organisation through which they were volunteering had to be congruent with their own values. This resonates with Finkelstien's (2009) belief that it is more important that the volunteering experience is congruent with the individual's sense of self and their values than any discussion of intrinsic or extrinsic motivation.

Finally, there are implications for the **Policy Context** in which volunteering in work with young people is operating. As has been discussed throughout this thesis, work with young people, in all its guises, have been disproportionally effected by The Conservative Government's austerity measures (Unison, 2016; UK Youth, 2018; Thompson, 2019). Without a diverse and robust voluntary and community sector, with strong links to Local Authority youth services, there are not the opportunities for people to participate in formal volunteering in work with young people. Whilst this research clearly shows that volunteers recognised that they learnt in a range of ways through their volunteering, the opportunity to engage with professionally qualified practitioners would not only allow volunteers to learn from them but also allow the professionals to enable volunteers to make the most of the learning opportunities available to them. This will be discussed further in section 6.3.

5.12 Beyond the VFI: Other Themes

An important reason for undertaking a meta-planning approach (Matheson and Matheson, 2009) in this research was to enable group exploration and discussion of the motivational factors and barriers to volunteering in work with young people as aligned to the social constructivist ontology (Lave & Wenger, 1991) underpinning my research. Furthermore, whilst the VFI (Clary *et al.*, 1998) was developed very robustly it has already been identified that in my initial study certain questions were identified as being irrelevant to work with young people. It could therefore not be assumed that there would be themes which were uniquely relevant to volunteers in this field. As such, it would be a mistake to just focus on the 6 VFI functions and not consider whether the open answers from the survey or the discussions of the focus groups identified any other themes.

5.12.1 Reciprocity

There was one main theme identified in the Focus Group discussions that were not one of the 6 VFI themes: reciprocity. In one way or another the focus groups generally reported a need for reciprocity, i.e. the sense that they were gaining something from their volunteering but also that their contribution was part of the bigger picture:

> **Betty:** Reciprocity – I think it's about give and take. Sometimes if you know that you've got to give a load of time but you feel that there's quite a lot that you are going to get out of it and the young person's going to get out of it and there's loads and loads of benefits then it's an equal balance or it tips the balance over (focus group 2).

Reciprocity, as articulated by participants in this research, represents the intersection of intrinsic or extrinsic motivations (Ryan and Deci, 2000), prosocial characteristics (Carlo *et al.*, 2005) and altruism (Andreoni, 1990). The psychological approaches to volunteering which prioritise altruism (Andreoni, 1990) and pro-social characteristics (Carlo *et al.*, 2005) are discussed in Chapter 2. This reinforces beliefs that volunteering should be motivated by a care for the greater good, negatively positioning volunteers who wish to benefit from their volunteering. The reciprocity discussed by volunteers makes it clear that they see the need to get something from their volunteering. However, in order for volunteering to be a panacea (Baines and Hardill, 2008) a change in culture at the personal, cultural and structural levels is needed to ensure that volunteers feel able to identify why they want to volunteer and what they want to gain. This is particularly important for certain groups, such as the participants in focus group 4, who had the lowest household incomes and educational achievement levels of all focus groups, but who were the most unwilling to consider that they should benefit from their voluntary activity.

Reciprocity became evident in two open comments added by survey respondents, but this was only identified after the Focus Groups had been analysed and would not have been discovered otherwise. This illustrates the importance of adopting the methodological approach chosen as otherwise, perhaps, this important component to ongoing volunteer motivation may not have been identified.

This supports Bales supposition that 'volunteers (are) motivated by a mix of altruism, self-interest and sociability' (1996, p.209). Furthermore, as discussed already, whilst both survey respondents and focus group participants found the idea of benefiting from their volunteering challenging at times the notion of 'reciprocity' seems to be the comfortable way for them to reconcile their needs with those of the beneficiaries of their volunteering.

5.12.2 Suitability

An aspect which was not evident in the literature, but which within an activity such as work with young people is vitally important to consider, is the appropriateness of any individual who wishes to work with young people and in particular whether their motivations are to primarily meet the needs of the young people, which does not preclude meeting their own needs too as appropriate (Adams, 2012). This was identified by members of focus group 2 who considered that individuals may have the wrong motivations or values to work with a vulnerable group such as young people. In this group, two participants were highly qualified Youth Work professionals and one was a senior teacher in their 'day jobs':

> **Betty:** But that's quite interesting isn't it because sometimes you do get people who come into volunteering for the wrong reasons like er I dunno ...
> **Daniel:** Does that happen quite a lot in faith based volunteering groups perhaps?
> **Betty:** But also like if they've been taken into care or something so then they want to work with children and everything but they haven't personally dealt with it. And then it's actually quite problematic. I mean I can just think of youth work where you have young people, you want to work with young people, and actually it's completely inappropriate (focus group 2).

5.12.3 Demotivating Factors

Finally, the VFI does not explore factors which demotivate volunteers. However, these were explicitly asked of the focus groups. Their responses have been grouped into the factors which cannot be affected such as illness and work and family commitments, and those which could be affected either by the volunteer themselves, the organisations providing the volunteering opportunity or by Government policy and mapped to Thompson's (2012) PCS Analysis.

Table 5-33: Demotivating factors and barriers to volunteering

Demotivating factors and barriers to volunteering in work with young people in England					
Out of sphere of control			Can be affected		
Personal	Family	Work	Opportunities	Organisation	Policy
P	C	S	P	C	S
Illness; health; uncomfortable with volunteering; time; burnout.	Commitments; needs; age of family members	Commitments; time; distance from org	Knowing what's available; networks, skills mapping; where, when, how long = fit to capacity to give; having done as much as you can; moving with you – space and family age.	Funding; policies; team; unvalued; unsupportive; no training; no feedback; unrealistic expectations; not feeling like a stakeholder.	Funding; Government; LA – filling gaps with volunteers = pressure; risk – pressures of responsibility to y/p or policy/structures e.g. Trustees.

Table 2-8 presents the reasons for not volunteering or not volunteering more frequently that respondents gave when submitting the Community Life Survey 17-18 (The Department for Digital Culture Media & Sport, 2018). Many of these are related to 'time' or 'other commitments' which were highlighted by participants in this research. However, 'I don't know any groups that need help' and 'I haven't heard about opportunities to give help/I couldn't find opportunities' were not articulated by participants in this research other than Georgia in focus group 3 who reported:

> 'It took me quite a while to get in to doing it. You know I'd tried since the end of last year to try and get in to the youth centre down here and it took me quite a while and then it went through [[vicar]] and then got me speaking to [[community worker]] and then it kind of happened from there, but it took quite a long time [yeah] so you have to be quite determined. You've kind of keep plugging away, that's how I felt. And then obviously you need to do your DBS and that takes a while, which I understand all the process, but I just think that a lot more people would do it if perhaps … it flowed a bit better may be.

This may be because Georgia was a relatively new volunteer whereas other individuals had been volunteering for some time. Furthermore, as identified in section 5.6, many of the volunteers got to know the project as young participants and so they were already aware of the project and opportunities.

Other barriers that respondents to the Community Life Survey 17-18 (The Department for Digital Culture Media & Sport, 2018) identified were 1. I'm not the right age, which was not relevant to participants in this research other than being adults, there is no right age to volunteer in work with young people; 2. 'I'm new to the area', this was not particularly relevant to participants in this research as they were already active volunteers. For those who no longer volunteered, moving may have been a factor. Moving was recognised as one of the 'changing factors' (Table 5-7) which might mean that they could no longer volunteer in their current setting. 3. 'I have never thought about it' and 4. 'It is not my responsibility' were not relevant to participants in this research as they had all been active volunteers at some point even if they were no longer.

5.13 Summary of key findings

To summarise the key findings discussed above, whilst all the VFI Functions (Clary *et al.*, 1998) were relevant to volunteering in work with young people, the social, understanding and values functions were the most important. In terms of the career function it was clear that this was not a motivating factor for all the participants. There were three main career related themes identified. These were that volunteering in work with young people was: sometimes initially career related; an opportunity to gain transferrable skills including benefitting their current career and contributing to their future career, and not always linked to their career.

The enhancement function was a motivation for some of the participants in this research, but not all. There were three main enhancement related themes identified. These were that volunteering in work with young people has an enhancement function, though for some enhancement was a controversial idea in volunteering in work with young people; volunteers needed balance between feeling valued, needed and over-burdened and importantly, volunteering in work with young people is fun.

The protective function was a controversial function for the survey respondents. Again, there were three main protective related themes identified. These were that volunteering in work with young people has limited protective functions, and this a controversial notion; was a way for volunteers to share their 'capitals', and supported participants to address deficits in their own youth.

There were five themes related to the social function, which was a motivating factor for many of the participants in this research. These were the importance of a social function; the need to consider the risks of cultural reproduction; the role of volunteer proximity in volunteer recruitment; the importance of the value of developing relationships with professionals and the impact of other commitments on volunteers' time.

The understanding function makes a significant contribution to the benefits gained from volunteering in work with young people. The three themes related to understanding in volunteering in work with young people was that it contributes to the understanding function; is important for volunteers' personal development, particularly as a form of lifelong learning and is improved through intelligent action.

Values are a very important function for the participants in this research. They identified that their volunteering in work with young people was often unpinned by their valuing the service and need to sustain it and that their volunteering made them feel valued.

This research did highlight some minor critiques of the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI). These are that the VFI schedule does not usually include open comments boxes, which in this research has enabled a greater understanding of participants responses or perspectives on the questions being asked. Some of the VFI questions may be relevant to more than one function, which may confuse respondents depending upon country of origin or the spaces in which they are volunteering. The VFI has become dominant within research into volunteering motivation which may be adversely affecting the diversity of perspectives and voices on the 'value' of volunteering. Finally, the VFI itself does not recognise the importance of context on volunteering experience.

Finally, this research explored highlighted issues which lie beyond the VFI. These are the need for reciprocity within a volunteering opportunity and the importance of the suitability of the adult to the volunteering activity. Finally, this research identified the factors which might demotivate volunteers and the barriers to volunteering including those outside of the volunteer control.

5.14 Conclusion

In this chapter I have critically discussed these findings in relation to the Volunteer Functions identified by Clary et al (1998) and compared the data collected via the survey and focus group with the literature already discussed in Chapter 2.

In the following chapter I will discuss the implications of my research for volunteering practices in work with young people. I will draw some tentative conclusions, make recommendations for future research and explain how my work makes an original contribution to the field of education, in relation to practice and theory.

6. Conclusion

In this final chapter I will discuss the implications of my research for volunteering practices in work with young people. I will draw some conclusions, make recommendations for future research and explain how my work makes an original contribution to the field of education, in relation to practice and theory.

6.1 Aims of this thesis and its relevance

Volunteering is deeply embedded in the history (Smith, 2013) and, one would hope, the future, of work with young people (Unite the Union, 2015). This research aimed to strengthen the status of this work and evidence a social mission which extends beyond young people, and into the communities in which they live by recognising the value of volunteering in work with young people for adults (Cemalcilar 2009). By addressing a gap in a current lack of published research on what motivates adults to volunteer in work with young people in England we can develop our understanding of the benefits of volunteering in work with young people for those adults who participate. Therefore the aim of my research was to answer three main questions:

1. What motivates adults to volunteer to work with young people in England?
2. What are the benefits to the volunteer from participating in work with young people in England? What are the ways in which people learn and develop different types of capital from their volunteering and is this different depending upon an individuals' identity characteristics?
3. What factors motivate and demotivate adults from continuing to volunteer in working with young people in England and which of the demotivating factors might we be able to mitigate against?

Services for young people have disproportionately been affected by austerity measures with youth services being shut, the closure of the Connexions service and a reduction in mental health services (Unison, 2014) to name but three. The voluntary sector has also been adversly affected with many local authorities reducing the budgets with which they support their work (Hillier, 2015). So, at a time when The Government is trying to recruit youth work volunteers (Jozwiak, 2017), it is opportune to consider the motivations of those who volunteer in this field in order to develop our understanding of the implications of these funding and policy changes on volunteers and the organisations that support and rely on them (Bales, 1996). Furthermore, if organisations are to recruit and keep volunteers it is vital that they understand what their particular volunteering experience can offer.

It is clear that austerity 'policies have … had far-reaching impacts on the poorest people in the UK' (Oxfam Case Study, 2013, n.p.) and so new approaches will need to be adopted to address the great challenges ahead. The practice-based nature of an EdD requires the bridging of theory and practice and allows for greater links to be made between the two. Developing new knowledge will support and increase our understanding of how best to engage with current volunteering communities to identify and address the barriers that they face. In doing so it will extend the engagement of current volunteers and help to bring in new ones.

6.2 Key findings

The key findings from my research have been themed according to their implications for the field of work with young people, volunteers, volunteer managers and Government policy. Whilst all the VFI Functions were relevant to volunteering in work with young people, the Social, Understanding and Values functions were the most important. For volunteers, this research highlights the importance of open discussions about their volunteering experience, from beginning to end, whereas, volunteer managers need to consider the needs of their volunteers and maintain a dialogue beyond recruitment. The significance for government policy is that creating a vacuum, which leads to the need for volunteers, fails to acknowledge what a vibrant voluntary sector adds to civic society generally.

6.2.1 Implications for volunteering in work with young people

The outcomes of this research have implications for the field of work with young people, including specific findings of relevance to volunteers, those who recruit and support them and Government policy.

Whilst all the VFI Functions were relevant to volunteering in work with young people, the Social, Understanding and Values functions were the most important functions with the Career, Enhancement and Protective functions being somewhat less important. Clary & Snyder (1999) identify that the Enhancement, Understanding and Values are usually the most important functions. Whilst they identify that the priority of functions may be affected by particular aspects of participants identities, such as age, this research has discovered that the volunteering context can affect the appropriateness of functions.

6.2.2 Implications for Volunteers

For the volunteers themselves, this research highlights the need to create a dynamic discourse, from the point at which a volunteer is recruited. This discourse needs to acknowledge that volunteering can be as positive for the volunteer as it is for the recipient (Wilson, 2000) and that it is reasonable, and in many cases positive, to stop volunteering, particularly when it stops meeting volunteers' needs. It is important to foreground the fact that volunteering is a learning experience and volunteers need to be supported to identify and articulate that learning, both to themselves and others (Dewey, 1998). This is particularly the case if their volunteering is to have a positive impact in Government agendas such as those addressing employability or social mobility.

6.2.3 Implications for Volunteer Managers

There are a number of implications for those who manage volunteers in work with young people, though that was not the intended outcome of this research. It is important for volunteer recruiters and managers in the field of work with young people to recognise that what motivates volunteers to initially volunteer may appear to be similar to those that keep them returning to their volunteering over longer periods of time. Conversely, they may change over time due to a range of factors. If volunteers are to be retained then regular and robust conversations need to be had with them to ensure that their volunteering is continuing to meet their needs:

> **Lisa:** I don't think anyone has actually asked me that directly, you know the question - what is going to keep you here? (focus group 4)

In order to retain volunteers, a more holistic approach needs to be taken (where possible) so that volunteers can be supported to move to other opportunities within the organisation rather than being lost all together. One way organisations can achieve collaborative advantage (Huxham and Vangen, 2005) is by signposting volunteers to more appropriate volunteering opportunities in another setting if they can no longer meet the needs of the volunteers themselves.

Furthermore, organisations need to be honest about the affordances of volunteering with them in different roles. Volunteers reported lower levels of satisfaction when their experience did not match their expectations and volunteers with lower levels of satisfaction were less likely to be retained (Clary and Snyder, 1999). However, it is important to note that the main way volunteers were recruited in to work with young people is that someone asked them to participate (Table 4-16).

Regular volunteers frequently fed back that they wanted more responsibility, buy-in and training. Further research would be needed to support this but anecdotal evidence from the staff who identified focus group participants suggested that paid staff did not want to over burden volunteers. Unfortunately, this often resulted in unsatisfactory volunteering experiences which did not offer the full range of opportunities to learn and grow that is cited in the volunteer literature, particularly around the 'panacea' theory (Baines and Hardill, 2008).

Finally, respondents either volunteered locally, often in their own geographic community, or for a very specific organisation for which they feel great affinity, part of a community of identity, and will travel almost as far as it takes. Volunteer recruiters need to be clear about where their organisation sits in these two groups in order to understand their prospective volunteer market most effectively.

6.2.4 Implications for Government Policy

Since the 1990s, the promotion of volunteering has been a focus of Governmental policy (Rochester, Howlett and Ellis Paine, 2010; Dean, 2016). What is clear from both the online survey respondents and those who participated in the focus groups is that a good infrastructure for people to volunteer 'into' is needed including a range of opportunities in any geographical area but also across the spectrum of projects. Furthermore, a community development informed infrastructure is needed to support areas where there is little or no current opportunity to volunteer to create opportunities.

Volunteers need organisations and projects to volunteer in so that they can become part of and be supported by a community of practice (Wenger, 1998). This will ensure that practices are robust and ethical, volunteers are supported and can make the most of the opportunities available to them and that the needs of those who benefit from the voluntary activity are met. This is particularly true for work with young people where young people can be seen as both vulnerable and challenging.

Finally, much is made of the financial contribution that volunteering makes to society (Clary, Snyder and Stukas, 1998; Clary and Snyder, 1999; Cnaan *et al.*, 2010). It is, at best, short sighted to underfinance the network of support that not only enables volunteers to act, but also facilitates them to learn from the opportunities it provides for them. As this research has illustrated, these benefits are both specific, such as supporting employability, which has tangible benefits for society, but also holistic, allowing individuals to develop skills, build relationships and understanding with groups that they might not otherwise engage with.

6.3 How my research makes an original contribution to the field of education

This research makes an original contribution to the field of education in terms of theory through exploring the motivations of adults who volunteer in work with young people in England, an area that has not been studied before. In doing so it has started to map the general literature regarding volunteer motivation against the experiences of those who volunteer to work with young people. Furthermore, it has explored and evidenced the range of learning that takes place in this essentially informal and social activity.

This research also makes an original contribution to the field of education in terms of practice as it has started to argue for a more holistic understanding of the real value of work with young people by recognising its contribution to society through providing good quality volunteer opportunities. This research has also identified what good quality volunteer experiences both generally and in work with young people look like and makes recommendations to settings which offer such opportunities and the Government on how these can be developed. The findings of this research have already been shared with the organisations who hosted the focus groups, as appropriate.

Finally, this research makes a methodological contribution to the study of volunteer motivation and learning. As discussed in Chapter 2, the majority of research in this area utilises a survey to collect data. The methodology adopted here includes a survey augmented by focus groups. In Chapter 5, the findings are discussed and they illustrate the importance of combining these two approaches in not only adding more qualitative findings to support, in this case, the discussion of the VFI themes and their relevance to volunteering in work with young people, but to also identify and understand themes that sit outside the VFI. Furthermore it enabled discussions regarding the demotivating factors and reasons why adults might choose not to volunteer in work with young people.

6.4 Review of the strengths and limitations of this thesis

There are a number of strengths to my research. Firstly, my insider/outsider status allows me a unique understanding of the field without being so close as to overly bias participants responses. This research contributes to the social policy debate around the role and function of volunteers from the perspective of the volunteers themselves. In giving them voice, this research has opened the discussion on the agency they employ in becoming volunteers and in remaining in volunteering.

Secondly, this research appears to be the first of its kind in the area of work with young people. As such, it is contributing knowledge to the field at a difficult time. As Chapter 2 explores, work with young people is reliant on volunteers to function. This research identifies the ways in which volunteers in work with young people might be recruited, supported and developed in order to benefit the individuals volunteering, the young people and society more generally. The findings identified in this research are already being shared with the field of work with young people and being applied to explore other challenges faced within adult learning.

By utilising an online survey and focus groups, I was able to reach volunteers in a range of different settings, spread across England who were both currently volunteering and who had discontinued their volunteering to identify not just what motivated people to start and continue their volunteering but also what motivated them to stop volunteering. This unique methodology may inform future studies into adult volunteering, particularly the adoption of a critical paradigm which seeks to move beyond a focus on individual motivations towards an understanding of the importance of context on volunteering capacity and propensity.

There are a number of limitations to my research. Firstly, there are a large number of participants who were from one organisation which has quite specific characteristics which may well have affected the overall data trends.

Secondly, there are a number of limitations to my research methodology. Firstly, whilst utilising an online survey might be seen as a positive for some respondents, making the process much easier and quicker, for others this may be a barrier (Menter *et al.*, 2011). Secondly, snowball sampling (Sarantakos 2013) is another limitation of my research as the purposively sampled individuals act as gate-keepers to other volunteers (Sundeen et al. 2007). However, this was somewhat mitigated by the use of social media to reach people beyond my network.

Thirdly, the meta-planning approach (Matheson & Matheson 2009) I adopted for the focus group might have discouraged participants with literacy issues from participating. Finally, the respondents are from a fairly homogenous group. This restricts the extent to which my findings can be generalised to the wider volunteer workforce in work with young people in England and also volunteering more generally. However, by identifying cases based upon the nature of the groups providing the volunteering the focus group findings can be generalised to volunteer experiences in similar organisations.

6.5 Recommendations for further research

This research has begun to explore the complexities regarding volunteer engagement, recruitment and support and the need for nuanced approaches which take into consideration the differing experiences of diverse groups of volunteers and the utility of employing a lens of intersectionality (Hill Collins and Bilge, 2016) to better understand these experiences. It has also explored how Thompson's (2012) PCS model can explain how social structures recreate societies and their problems rather than effecting change and therefore how, without intelligent action (Dewey, 1998) volunteering can reinforce current social structures (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1990) rather than being a 'panacea' to bring about social mobility through developing human capital (Gratton and Ghoshal, 2003) in those that need it.

Further research is needed in these areas in order to understand them more fully and to compare the experiences of volunteers in work with young people with other types of volunteering as this may illuminate the experiences of adult volunteers in work with young people further.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Participant Information Sheet

The Open University

Information Sheet

Adults' motivation to volunteer in work with young people

I am Tyrrell Golding and I would like to invite you to take part in some research that is all about you and your views about volunteering in work with young people. Your opinions are what counts. It should only take about half an hour for the online survey and about an hour and a half for the focus group and it's up to you whether you choose to take part.

My research project aims to find out about:

- What motivates people to volunteer in work with young people?
- What supports people to continue to volunteer in work with young people?
- What barriers hinder people's volunteering?
- Do different groups of people experience or value their volunteering differently?

You can help by taking part in this research and telling me your views. You can do this by:

- Completing an online questionnaire
- Taking part in a focus group with other people who volunteer in work with young people

Any information you give me will be confidential. This means:

- your identity will be protected and no information will be given that could lead to you being identified

You will not have to answer any questions that you do not want to. If you are interested in having your say then please email me at volunteeringinwwyp@btinternet.com

If you want to confirm that I am a research student at the Open University, Faculty of Education and Language Studies, please contact my supervisor Dr David Matheson on david.matheson@open.ac.uk

Participants may withdraw at any time up until 31st January 2017. Any participant who withdraws from the study may have their data removed from the study.

Thank you

Tyrrell Golding

Informed Consent Form

What motivates adults' to volunteer in work with young people?

My name is Tyrrell Golding and the purpose of this consent form is to tell you of your rights as a participant in my study and of the procedures involved in the collection and keeping of data about yourself. I am interested in your views and experience of what motivates adults to volunteer in work with young people. I would he very grateful for your participation in this study.

My research and what you need to know

- It is your right not to answer any question that you are asked
- You may ask the researcher any questions you have
- You are free to end your participation in the online survey and focus group at any time without giving a reason and without any consequences
- In all outputs from the study, insofar as is possible, anything which might identify you will be disguised or removed
- Within the limits of the law no information will be passed onto anyone connected with you
- However, if you disclose physical, mental or sexual abuse I cannot guarantee confidentiality, and this will be passed on to the appropriate persons or authorities
- The online survey will be completed using Survey Monkey, which has industry compliant features to protect your data. The raw data will only be seen by the researcher and her supervisor, both of whom will respect absolute confidentiality within the limits of the law
- The focus group will be recorded using a digital recorder and all notes and tapes will be kept in a safe place
- You have the right to access the data about yourself and to ask for it to be removed from the study at any time up until 31st January 2017

Consent **Ref No.**

I have read this consent form in full. I have had the chance to ask questions concerning any areas that I did not understand. I consent to being a participant in the study:

Signature of participant:

Printed name of participant: Date of interview:

Signature of interviewer:

If you want to confirm that I am a research student at the Open University, Faculty of Education and Language Studies, please contact my supervisor Dr David Matheson on david.matheson@open.ac.uk

Appendix 3: Participant Data Sheet

Participant Data Ref No.

Age	16 to 19	20 to 24	25 to 29
	30 to 34	35 to 39	40 to 44
	45 to 49	50 to 54	55 to 59
	60 to 64	65 to 69	70 to 74
	75 to 79	80 or over	
Sex	Male Female		
Marital Status	• single, that is, never married and never registered a same-sex civil partnership • married • separated, but still legally married • divorced • widowed • in a registered same-sex civil partnership • separated, but still legally in a same-sex civil partnership • formerly in a same-sex civil partnership which is now legally dissolved • surviving partner from a same-sex civil partnership		
Current occupation	• Higher managerial, administrative and professional occupations; • Lower managerial, administrative and professional occupations; • Intermediate occupations; • Small employers and own account workers; • Lower supervisory and technical occupations; • Semi-routine occupations; • Routine occupations • Never worked and long-term unemployed • Full Time Student		
What is your total household income before tax	Under £2,500 £5,000 - £9,999 £15,000 - £19,999 £25,000 - £29,999 £35,000 - £39,999 £45,000 - £49,999 £75,000 - £99,999 no income	£2,500 - £4,999 £10,000 - £14,999 £20,000 - £24,999 £30,000 - £34,999 £40,000 - £44,999 £50,000 - £74,999 £100,000 or more	
What is the highest level of education that you have completed?	• Higher degree/postgraduate qualifications • First degree (incl BEd) Postgrad Diplomas/ Certificates (including PGCE) Professional qualifications at Degree level / NVQ/SVQ Level 4 or 5 • Diplomas in higher education/ other HE qualification HNC/ HND/ BTEC higher Teaching qualifications for schools/ further education (below degree level) Nursing/ other medical qualifications (below degree level) RSA Higher Diploma • A/AS levels/ SCE higher/ Scottish Certificate 6th Year Studies NVQ/ SVQ/ GSVQ level 3/ GNVQ Advanced ONC/ OND/ BTEC National City and Guilds Advanced Craft/ Final level/ Part III RSA Advanced Diploma • Trade Apprenticeships		

	• level/ GCSE Grades A*-C/ SCE Standard/ Ordinary Grades 1-3 NVQ/SVQ/ GSVQ level 2/ GNVQ intermediate BTEC/ SCOTVEC First/ General diploma City and Guilds Craft/ Ordinary level/ Part II/ RSA Diploma • level/GCSE grade D-G/ SCE Standard/Ordinary grades below 3 NVQ/SVQ/ GSVQ level 1/ GNVQ foundation BTEC/ SCOTVEC First/ General certificate City and Guilds Part I/ RSA Stage I-III SCOTVEC modules/ Junior Certificate • Other qualifications including overseas

Your ethnic group or background?	**WHITE** 1. English/Welsh/Scottish/Northern Irish/British 2. Irish 3. Gypsy or Irish Traveller 4. Any other White background (please specify) **MIXED** 5. White and Black Caribbean 6. White and Black African 7. White and Asian 8. Any other mixed/multiple ethnic background (specify) **ASIAN OR ASIAN BRITISH** 9. Indian 10. Pakistani 11. Bangladeshi 12. Chinese 13. Any other Asian/Asian British background (specify) **BLACK OR BLACK BRITISH** 14. African 15. Caribbean 16. Any other Black/Black British background (specify) **OTHER ETHNIC GROUP** 17. Arab 18. Any other ethnic group (specify)

What is your religion even if you are not currently practising?	• No religion • Christian • Buddhist • Hindu • Jewish • Muslim • Sikh • Any other religion
Are you practising?	Yes No
If yes, was your volunteering linked to your religious activities?	
What is/was the title or remit of your volunteer post?	

If this is a current post, how long have you been volunteering for?	
If this is a previous post, how long did you volunteer for?	
What was the approximate distance from your home to your volunteer post	

Appendix 4: Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI) Survey

Online Survey

The purpose of this information is to tell you of your rights as a participant in the study and of the procedures involved in the collection and keeping of data about yourself. I am interested in your views and experience of what motivates adults to volunteer in work with young people. I would be very grateful for your participation in this study.

My research and what you need to know

- It is your right not to answer any question that you are asked
- You may ask the researcher any questions you have
- You are free to end your participation in the online survey and focus group at any time without giving a reason and without any consequences
- In all outputs from the study, insofar as is possible, anything which might identify you will be disguised or removed
- Within the limits of the law no information will be passed onto anyone connected with you
- However, if you disclose physical, mental or sexual abuse I cannot guarantee confidentiality, and this will be passed on to the appropriate persons or authorities
- The online survey will be completed using Survey Monkey, which has industry compliant features to protect your data. The raw data will only be seen by the researcher and her supervisor, both of whom will respect absolute confidentiality within the limits of the law
- The focus group will be recorded using a digital recorder and all notes and tapes will be kept in a safe place
- You have the right to access the data about yourself and to ask for it to be removed from the study at any time up until 31st January 2017

Consent

By completing this online questionnaire, you are giving your consent to being a participant in the study.

Initial Questions:

Name
Age
Gender
Current occupation
Employment status
Household income (choice from drop down box)
What is the highest level of education that you have completed? (choice from drop down box)
Nationality (choice from drop down box)
Ethnicity (choice from drop down box)
Religion (choice from drop down box)
If so, practising?
If so, was your volunteering linked to your religious activities?
Volunteer post:
Current? If so, how long have you been volunteering for?
Past? If so, how long did you volunteer for?
How did you first get involved in volunteering with young people?
I was asked by someone I know
I replied to an advert
Other (please specify)
What counties in England have you volunteered in?
Approximate distance from home to volunteer post

Volunteer Questionnaire

On the following pages are two sets of items that concern your experiences as a volunteer. The first set, Reasons for Volunteering, presents 30 reasons that people volunteer and asks that you indicate how important each reason is for you for your volunteering at this organization. The second set, Volunteering Outcomes, presents 18 outcomes that can result from volunteering and asks that you indicate whether you have experienced each outcome.

Please indicate how important or accurate each of the 30 possible reasons for volunteering were for you in doing volunteer work.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Rating	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
1. Volunteering can help me to get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.							
2. My friends volunteer.							
3. I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.							
4. People I'm close to want me to volunteer.							
5. Volunteering makes me feel important.							
6. People I know share an interest in community service.							
7. No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it.							
8. I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.							
9. By volunteering I feel less lonely.							
10. I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.							
11. Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.							

12. I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.							
13. Volunteering increases my self-esteem.							
14. Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.							
15. Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.							
16. I feel compassion toward people in need.							
17. Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service.							
18. Volunteering lets me learn things through direct, hands on experience.							
19. I feel it is important to help others.							
20. Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems.							
21. Volunteering will help me to succeed in my chosen profession.							
22. I can do something for a cause that is important to me.							
23. Volunteering is an important activity to the people I know best.							
24. Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.							
25. I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.							
26. Volunteering makes me feel needed.							
27: Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.							
28. Volunteering experience will look good on my resume.							
29. Volunteering is a way to make new friends.							
30. I can explore my own strengths.							

Volunteering Outcomes

Using the 7-point scale below, please indicate the amount of agreement or disagreement you personally feel with each statement. Please be as accurate and honest as possible, so we can better understand this organization.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Rating	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
31. In volunteering with this organization, I made new contacts that might help my business or career.							
32. People I know best know that I am volunteering at this organization							
33. People I am genuinely concerned about are being helped through my volunteer work at this organization							
34. From volunteering at this organization, I feel better about myself							
35. Volunteering at this organization allows me the opportunity to escape some of my own troubles							
36. I have learned how to deal with a greater variety of people through volunteering at this organization							
37. As a volunteer in this organization, I have been able to explore possible career options							
38. My friends found out that I am volunteering at this organization							
39. Through volunteering here, I am doing something for a cause that I believe in							
40. My self-esteem is enhanced by performing volunteer work in this organization							
41. By volunteering at this organization, I have been able to work through some of my own personal problems							

42. I have been able to learn more about the cause for which I am working by volunteering with this organization							
43. I am enjoying my volunteer experience							
44. My volunteer experience has been personally fulfilling							
45. This experience of volunteering with this organization has been a worthwhile one							
46. I have been able to make an important contribution by volunteering at this organization							
47. I have accomplished a great deal of "good" through my volunteer work at this organization							

48. One year from now, will you be (please circle your best guess as of today):

A. volunteering at this organization
B. volunteering at another organization
C. not volunteering at all

Thank you for participating in my survey.

The second part of my research will be to facilitate Focus Groups. If you are interested in participating in this 90 minute session, or would like to receive information on the findings of my research please leave your details below.

Would you be interested in participating in the Focus Group (date and time permitting)?

Yes
No
No, but somebody else within my organisation would

Would you like to receive details of the findings of my research?

Yes
No

Name Address
Email

Appendix 5: Focus Group Schedule

Focus Group Schedule

Material Required:

Four colours of post it notes
Flip Chart Paper
Blu tac
Sticky dots (two colours)
Board markers

Questions:

1. **What motivates you to volunteer in work with young people?**
    - Four post-it notes: why do you volunteer?
      Each participant to respond as quickly as possible, one motivating factor per post it note. Participants asked to stick their comments anywhere on the sheet.
    - The group puts the post it notes in to groups and gives each category a name.
    - Vote (three sticky dots per participant) for categories, NOT individual post-its

2. **What are the barriers to you volunteering in work with young people?**
    - Four post-it notes: what stops you from volunteering?
      Each participant to respond as quickly as possible, one barrier per post-it note
      Participants asked to stick their comments anywhere on the sheet.
    - The group puts the post-it notes in to groups and gives each category a name
    - Vote (three sticky dots per participant) for categories, NOT individual post-its
3. Summary and comment/discussion: to what extent do these categories so far reflect reality?
4. Fresh post it: which negative can overcome all the positives? This can be a new idea or one already identified
5. Fresh post it: which positive can overcome all the negatives? This can be a new idea or one already identified

1. **What makes a good volunteering experience?**
    - Four post-it notes: what makes a good volunteering experience?
      Each participant to respond as quickly as possible, one good characteristic per post it note. Participants asked to stick their comments anywhere on the sheet.
    - The group puts the post it notes in to groups and gives each category a name.
    - Vote (three sticky dots per participant) for categories, NOT individual post-its
2. **What makes a bad volunteering experience?**
    - Four post-it notes: what makes a bad volunteering experience?
      Each participant to respond as quickly as possible, one bad characteristic per post it note. Participants asked to stick their comments anywhere on the sheet.
    - The group puts the post it notes in to groups and gives each category a name.
    - Vote (three sticky dots per participant) for categories, NOT individual post-its
3. Summary and comment/discussion: to what extent do these categories so far reflect reality?
4. Fresh post it: which bad characteristic can overcome all the characteristics? This can be a new idea or one already identified
5. Fresh post it: which good characteristics can overcome all the bad characteristics? This can be a new idea or one already identified

Appendix 6: Ethical Grid

An ethical grid including possible questions that could be posed within each level of the framework (Stutchbury and Fox, 2009)

Rationale	**No.**	**Questions to consider**
External/ecological		
Cultural sensitivity	1	What are the values, norms and roles in the environment in which I am working and are they likely to be challenged by this research? *There may be a range of perspectives on work with young people held by the respondents to the online survey. The world of work with young people is a diverse one and more formal uniformed organisations may have differing approaches and underlying values and beliefs from those who volunteer in the statutory sector. There may be differences of opinion based on levels of training and the traditions in which that training has taken place.* *The Focus Groups will be undertaken with different groups from different organisations so the values, norms and roles of each group will need to be considered separately.*
Awareness of all parts of the institution	2	What is the relationship between the group/individual I am working with and the institution as a whole? How does it affect the participant(s)? *This is not relevant to the surveys as the individuals are responding from the own personal perspectives and may be amalgamating many years voluntary experience in a number of settings.* *Three of the focus groups were conducted with a group of volunteers in a particular setting or project. Given the nature of the research questions being asked the topics being discussed were not particularly controversial. However, in each group the nature of the organisation and the relationships within it were discussed. Each group approved of the organisation being given feedback from the discussions in order that their support of volunteers could be improved.*

Responsive communication – awareness of the wishes of others	3	How might my work be viewed/interpreted by others in the institution? How will the language I use be interpreted? *The questions within the VFI are pre-set. When piloted and in the initial study there were some comments regarding one or two of the questions as to their suitability to work with young people. However, these comments were an important finding and a key distinction in work with young people unlike some other volunteering sites. As such, the questions were kept in the survey that was used in this study.* *The questions in the Focus Group are by their nature as open as possible and plain language was used in order to ensure their suitability for as broad a group of participants as possible.*
Responsibilities to sponsors	4	What are my responsibilities to the people paying for or supporting this research (local authority, my school, external bodies)? *N/A.*
Codes of practice	5	Have I worked within the British Educational Research Association guidelines? Are there other relevant codes which might also be applicable? Am I aware of my rights and responsibilities through to publication? *Ethical approval for this study was applied for and given by the Open University Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC). Participants had up intil Janury 2017 to withdraw from the study. Participants were asked permission to use their data in any publications and data has been anonymised.*
Efficiency / use of resources	6	Have I made efficient use of the resources available to me, including people's time? *The surveys utilised a likert scale allowing for them to be as streamlined as possible. However, participants were offered the opportunity to write open comments to enable them to give fuller answers should they wish to.* *The Focus Groups were approximately two hours long, but this included time to explain the focus of the research. Most participants reported that the activity had been a very positive one.*
Quality of evidence on which conclusions are based	7	Have I got enough evidence to back-up my conclusions and recommendations? *Having adopted a mixed methods approach the issue is actually having two much data and the need to coherently critically analyse two different data sets.*

The law	8	What legal requirements relating to working with children do I need to comply with? Am I aware of my data protection responsibilities? Am I aware of the need for disclosure of criminal activity? Do I need written permissions? *This research was conducted with adults only. I have held many CRB checks over my career. I am aware that working with vulnerable adults is more relevant, ethically, to my research and I am aware of the relevant policies regarding this.* *In the information sheet for my research, participants were explained of my duty to report any abusive or dangerous practice should they become apparent in participants answers.*
Risk	9	Are there any risks to anyone as a result of this research? *There can never be said to be no risk though the risk in this study is extremely low as I was engaging with adult respondents and asking questions that were not controversial.*
Consequential/utilitarian		
Benefits for individuals	10	What are the benefits of my doing this research to the participants? Would an alternative methodology bring greater individual benefits? *There are many benefits to the respondents in gaining a greater insight into what motivates them to volunteer and what constitutes a good volunteering environment. For those who participated in the focus group there was an added benefit of their feedback directly changing practices in their current setting. For all participants it provided an opportunity to reflect upon their voluntary work and identify what they got out of it.*
Benefits for particular groups/ organisation	11	What are the benefits of my doing my research to the school/department? Could these be increased in any way? How will I ensure that they know about my findings? Is my work relevant to the school development plan? Can I justify my choice of methods to my sponsors? *My work was not undertaken in a school. However, feedback from focus groups were fed back to managers in their current setting. If this feedback is acted upon then improvements can be made.* *I have the details of any survey participant who wants feedback on the findings of this research and a poster will be distributed in due course.*

Most benefits for society	12	Is this a worthwhile area to research? Am I contributing to the 'greater good'? Is it high quality and open to scrutiny? *This research is very important to work with young people which relies heavily on volunteers and will continue to do so in the future. This research fills a gap in our knowledge regarding volunteering in this field and challenges certain 'common sense' assumptions regarding volunteering. It has been conducted under the scrutiny and guidance of two supervisors within the EdD programme and so I believe that it is high quality and open to scrutiny.*
Avoidance of harm	13	Are there any sensitive issues likely to be discussed or aspects of the study likely to cause discomfort or stress? *Not unless participants chose to bring something up. The only area where this might be an issue is where participants describe a bad volunteering experience or if they have felt excluded on unsupported in some way. However, this may be an opportunity for them to air these experiences.*
Benefits for the researcher	14	Am I going to be able to get enough data to write a good thesis or paper? Am I aware of my publication rights? What might I learn from this project? Will it help in my long-term life goals? *Yes there is substantial data to gather in this area. I am aware of my publication rights. I have learnt a huge amount from this project both in terms of the process of research but also volunteering in work with young people. I intend to continue to research volunteering and lifelong learning and the completion of this project will help me to do this.*
Deontological		
Avoidance of wrong – honesty and candour	15	Have I been open and honest in advance with everyone who might be affected by this research? Are they aware that they can withdraw, in full or in part, if they wish? *I believe so. I included key members of youth agencies that might find this research useful in my initial study. Sadly there was a low level of response from those who did complete the survey. Those who did participate in either the survey or the focus group were generally positive.* *All participants in the initial study and main study were given details outlining how they could withdraw from the study.*

Fairness	16	Have I treated all participants fairly? Am I using incentives fairly? Will I acknowledge everyone involved fairly? Can I treat all participants equally? *There were no incentives used in this research project other than the opportunity to be heard. All participants were treated fairly and were self-selecting in terms of participation and so no bias was shown in the recruitment of participants.*
Reciprocity	17	Have I explained all the implications and expectations to the participants? Have I negotiated mutually beneficial arrangements? Have I made myself available when those involved might wish me to be? Are the participants clear about roles, including my own, as they relate to expectations? *This was discussed at the beginning of each focus group. It was outlined in the participation information sheet given to all participants. An email address was given to all participants if they wished to get in touch, withdraw or ask further questions.*
Tell the truth	18	If there is any need for covert research how will I deal with this? What will I do if I find out something that the participants/school/department do not like? How will I report unpopular findings? *There is no need for covert research project. I am not allied to any organisation that will be affected by unpopular findings.*
Keep promises	19	Have I clarified access to the raw data and how I will share findings including at publication? How will I ensure confidentiality? *This was outlined in the participant information sheet. Confidentiality can be ensured in so far as is possible. Participants in the focus group may identify themselves or their comments and therefore the comments of others in their focus group but it is unlikely that they will be able to identify individuals or sites of other focus groups.*
Do the most positive good	20	Is there any other way I could carry out this research that would bring more benefits to those involved? *Not that I am aware of. Dissemination of the findings will be key to ensuring that it has impact and that their time wasn't wasted.*

Relational/individual		
Genuine collaboration/trust established	21	Who are the key people involved? How can I build a constructive relationship with them? *Members of the field of work with young people. I engaged with key colleagues during the initial study and they were also employed in the dissemination of the survey via snow-ball sampling and in identifying sites for the focus groups.*
Avoid imposition/respect autonomy	22	Am I making unreasonable or sensitive demands on any individuals? Do they appreciate that participation is voluntary? *This is made clear in the participant information sheet. Due to the nature of the recruitment of participants the self-nominated their participation in both the survey and the focus group. As current volunteers they are, I believe, very aware of the idea of voluntary participation.*
Confirmation of findings	23	What steps will I take in my methodology to ensure the validity and reliability of my findings? Can I involve participants in validation? Will I report in an accessible way to those involved? *A survey which has been extensively tested, in terms of both validity and reliability, and used in a number of settings was adopted for this research. The focus groups outcomes were thematically analysed and reviewed by the participants themselves to ensure that they were happy with their conclusions.* *A poster will be developed and sent to any participants who requested feedback on the research in due course. This will be aimed at a wide audience and the language used will reflect this.*
Respect persons equally	24	How will I demonstrate my respect for all participants? Have I treated pupils in the same way as teachers? *This research has been conducted with adult volunteers. All adults were treated individually rather than equally in order not to discriminate against individuals who may have specific needs.*